

# Small-strain shear stiffness of compacted bentonites for engineered barrier system

X. Pintado<sup>1</sup>, E. Romero<sup>2</sup>, J. Suriol<sup>2</sup>, A. Lloret<sup>2</sup>, B.N. Madhusudhan<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> AINS Group, Helsinki, Finland, xavier.pintado@ains.fi

<sup>2</sup> Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya, Barcelona, Spain.

<sup>3</sup> Department of Engineering and the Environment. University of Southampton, Southampton, United Kingdom.

## Abstract

The shear modulus ( $G$ ) of two different bentonites was measured by means of a resonant column apparatus. The samples were compacted at different dry densities and degrees of saturation and tested with different confinement pressures and strains levels for studying the influence of these parameters on the shear modulus. The results show similar tendencies in both bentonites: the shear modulus increases as the dry density increases and exhibits maximum shear modulus when degree of saturation is around 80%. An empirical equation, taking into account the microstructure of the clays, is used to evaluate the shear modulus at small strains as a function of dry density and degree of saturation. Although the values of the shear modulus measured are similar in both bentonites for a given stress and degree of saturation, there is difference in the elastic strain limit of the soil. Bentonite clay is going to be part of the Engineered Barrier System (EBS) in deep geological disposal facilities for the long-term confinement of spent nuclear fuel. In order to fully understand their long-term performance, their behaviour in shearing conditions should be assessed.

**Keywords:** resonant column; shear modulus; engineered barrier system; suction; effective degree of saturation; macro structure.

## 25    **Introduction**

26    Deep geological disposal is an option for the long-term confinement of spent nuclear fuel in  
27    many countries employing nuclear power. Bentonite is rather complex material that contain a  
28    high smectite content and exhibit high plasticity. These materials also contain other clay  
29    minerals, e.g., illite, as well as non-clay minerals such as quartz, feldspar, cristobalite,  
30    plagioclase and others in small amounts. The complex microstructure and chemical and  
31    mineralogical composition of bentonites make it difficult to test and fully interpret their  
32    physical behaviour. In particular, the high swelling capacity and low hydraulic conductivity of  
33    bentonite materials make difficult to measure mechanical parameters. For this reason, there are  
34    a few measures of these parameters available in the literature, in particular, of the shear modulus  
35    at small strains.

36    The minimum density of the bentonite allowed after the saturation process (the bentonite is  
37    going to be saturated due to the groundwater flow from the host rock to the bentonite) depends  
38    on the requirements for preventing significant microbial activity (it is necessary a minimum  
39    swelling pressure for preventing this activity, which depends on the density of the bentonite),  
40    ensuring tightness and self-sealing (related to the swelling pressure as well), preventing  
41    significant canister sinking (related with the stiffness of the bentonite, which depends on the  
42    density) and reducing the colloid-facilitated radionuclide transport and advective transport (the  
43    hydraulic conductivity is strongly related to the porosity, which is directly related to the  
44    density), but there is also a requirement for the maximum density<sup>1</sup>. The barrier should be soft  
45    enough in order to avoid excess of stresses when a fracture intersecting a deposition hole is  
46    affected by a nearby earthquake and this fracture slips and causes a shearing of the buffer and  
47    the enclosed canister.

The current design in Finland and Sweden is nicknamed KBS-3<sup>2</sup>. The KBS-3 design involves the excavation of a tunnels network in a crystalline rock and the emplacement of the canisters containing the spent nuclear fuel in vertical deposition holes (KBS-3V disposal method<sup>3</sup>) or in horizontal galleries (KBS-3H alternative<sup>4</sup>). The canisters containing the spent nuclear fuel are going to be emplaced surrounded by a sealing material called Engineered Barrier System (EBS). This sealing material is compacted bentonite, a high expansive clay. The emplacement of the spent nuclear fuel repository in Finland is planned to be in Olkiluoto<sup>2,4</sup>, an island at the western coast. Shear displacements in fractures intersecting a deposition hole and a canister is considered to be one of the canister failure modes. Shear displacements large enough to damage the canister are only possible in large earthquakes. Olkiluoto is located in the Fennoscandian Shield away from active plate margins and is currently seismically quiet. The lack of observations of large post-glacial faults in the Olkiluoto area and in the southern Finland indicates that end-glacial faulting at Olkiluoto seems unlikely, however, the possibility of large earthquakes, especially at the time of ice-sheet retreat, cannot be totally excluded<sup>4</sup>. For KBS-3V, the magnitude of such a rock shear displacement and its rate have been estimated to be at maximum 5 cm and 1.0 m/s, respectively<sup>4</sup>.

Some studies have been done for the analysis of shearing in canisters. Börgesson<sup>5</sup> presents a mock-up test where the deposition hole was scaled about 1:10 and a copper canister surrounded by expansive clay was sheared under different shear rates. The shearing process was also numerically modelled. Other canister shearing modelling works can be found in Börgesson et al.<sup>6</sup>. The shear modulus is an important parameter and is indirectly introduced with  $\kappa_p$  (related with the volumetric variations with changes in  $p$ ) and  $\kappa_s$  (related with volumetric variations with changes in suction) if the elastic part of the model is logarithmic elastic for the simulation of bentonite<sup>7</sup>. If the model is linear elastic, the shear modulus can be introduced directly or as

function of the Poisson ratio<sup>6</sup>. The shear modulus is related with the Poisson ratio through the equation:

$$G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)} \quad (1)$$

$G$  depends of the confinement pressure  $p$  and the shear strain  $\gamma$  (see equations (7) and (8)).

The MX-80 bentonite is one of the bentonites selected as material for the EBS in Finland<sup>2</sup> and in Sweden<sup>1</sup>. This material has high content of smectite (88%), cation exchange capacity (CEC) around 0.86 eq/kg, liquid limit around 500% and plasticity index around 450%. The specific surface is 624 m<sup>2</sup>/g. The density of solid particles is 2.78 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>. MX-80 can be described as sodium bentonite. More information about the material used in this work can be found in Kiviranta and Kumpulainen<sup>8</sup> and Kiviranta et al.<sup>9</sup>.

The FEBEX bentonite is the reference material for the EBS in Spain<sup>10</sup>. This material has also high smectite content (92%), cation exchange capacity (CEC) around 1.02 eq/kg, liquid limit around 102% and the plasticity index around 49%. The specific surface is 725 m<sup>2</sup>/g. The density of solid particles is 2.70 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>. More information about this material can be found in Enresa<sup>10</sup>. FEBEX bentonite can be described as calcium bentonite.

Triaxial laboratory tests in MX-80 have been carried out for the shearing parameters evaluation<sup>11,12</sup>. The yield parameters are quite well determined by performing triaxial tests but the shear modulus measured can be too low due to the high deformation of the sample when the measures start to be reliable for measuring the shear modulus.

Resonant column tests in compacted soils can be found in Edil et al.<sup>13</sup>, who used a resonant column device for measuring the shear modulus of samples equilibrated at different suctions in ceramic plate extractors. Wu et al.<sup>14</sup> present resonant column tests in compacted samples tested

at controlled water content. More recently, Mancuso et al.<sup>15</sup> and Vassallo et al.<sup>16</sup> developed a suction-controlled resonant column and tested compacted samples.

Some resonant column tests have been carried out on MX-80 and FEBEX bentonite samples (Tables 1 and 2). The small-strain shear modulus  $G_{max}$  or  $G_0$  of compacted soils depends on dry density, degree of saturation (directly related to the suction through the water retention curve), overconsolidation ratio, confinement pressure, and the way the microstructure (pore size distribution) is organised<sup>17,18</sup>, so the tests have been done for different dry densities, degrees of saturation and confinement pressures. The earthquake resistant design also requires the knowledge of the limit strain level, beyond which the material no longer behaves linear elastic<sup>19</sup>.

Some semi-empirical models have been proposed in order to be able to predict the maximum shear modulus. Many of these models are based on empirical relationships similar to one proposed by Hardin and Black<sup>20</sup>. These empirical expressions are of the following form (Cascante and Santamarina<sup>21</sup>):

$$G_{max} = A f(e) p_0^b \quad (2)$$

where  $p_0$  is the isotropic confining load,  $f(e)$  is a function of the void ratio and  $A$  and  $b$  are constant parameters.

Recently, some new models have been presented<sup>22</sup> considering the unsaturated state conditions. The results have been usually interpreted in terms of effective stresses or in terms of net stresses and suctions. More recently, Alonso et al.<sup>23</sup> and Heitor et al.<sup>24</sup> proposed the use of a Bishop-type constitutive stress (see equation 9), while Biglari et al.<sup>25,26</sup> used the generalized stress variables proposed by Gallipoli et al.<sup>27</sup>.

In this work, the effects of the variation of confining pressure, compaction dry density and water content on small strain shear modulus of the two mentioned smectite clays are presented. The

results are interpreted using the constitutive stress recently proposed by Alonso et al.<sup>23</sup> and the well-established semi-empirical model of Hardin and Black<sup>21</sup>.

The spent nuclear fuel generates heat and increases the temperature of the buffer and the rock. The maximum temperature is limited to 100°C and it is expected to be reached 10-20 years after the canister emplacement but this temperature will decrease quite rapidly and in less than 300 years, it will be lower than 50°C and around 35°C after 1000 years (Ikonen and Raiko<sup>28</sup>). For this reason, the evolution of the shear modulus with the temperature has not been considered.

## **Experimental methods and results**

Stiffness data at different isotropic stresses ranging from  $p=0.1$  to 10 MPa in MX-80 bentonite (tests performed by the Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya with a range of  $p=0.1$  to 0.8 MPa and by the University of Southampton with a range of  $p=0.4$  to 10 MPa) and from  $p=0.1$  to 0.8 MPa in FEBEX bentonite (tests performed by the Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya) were determined using a Stokoe-type resonant column under torsional mode of vibration<sup>29</sup>. By varying the frequency of torsional vibration, a frequency response curve at a given torque level can be determined and the resonant frequency associated with the first (fundamental) mode of vibration ( $f_n$ ) is obtained as the frequency corresponding to the peak response. From the resonant frequency ( $f_n$ ), the value of shear wave propagation ( $V_s$ ) within the material and the corresponding shear modulus ( $G$ ) was calculated using the material geometry with the procedure outlined in ASTM<sup>30</sup>. The damping ratio was also measured but the results and the analysis of the results are out of the scope of this article. Calibration of the resonant column using metal calibration rods and weights of known geometry was performed over the torsional stiffness range exhibited by the bentonite samples<sup>31</sup>. The relation between the shear modulus ( $G$ ) and the resonant frequency ( $f_n$ ) is:

$$G = K f_n^2 \quad (3)$$

138 where  $K$  is a constant which depends of the geometry of the sample and the resonant column  
 139 test set up (assuming that the polar moment of inertia of the top cap is much greater than that  
 140 of the soil sample):

$$K = \frac{8 \pi J_m}{R^4} L \quad (4)$$

141  $J_m$  is the polar moment of inertia of the oscillating top cap,  $L$  the length and  $R$  the radius of the  
 142 sample. Circumferential displacement of the top of the sample is measured by an accelerometer.

143 The average shear strain ( $\bar{\gamma}$ ) is calculated:

$$\bar{\gamma} = \frac{2}{3} \gamma_{max} = \frac{R k_{acc}}{12 \pi^2 R_a L} \frac{V_{pp}}{f^2} \quad (5)$$

144  $f$  is the frequency of the movement,  $V_{pp}$  is the accelerometer output peak to peak voltage,  $k_{acc}$  is  
 145 the calibration constant of the accelerometer output [ $\text{m s}^{-2} \text{ V}^{-1}$ ] and  $R_a$  the distance from the  
 146 axial axis of the sample to the centroid of the accelerometer.

147 The MX-80 bentonite was mixed with water till reaching the target water content with a mixer  
 148 (RV02E Eirich mixer, [www.eirich.com](http://www.eirich.com)). The FEBEX bentonite was mixed with water with a  
 149 sprayer and a spoon. The material was kept 24 hours covered with a plastic film for avoiding  
 150 water evaporation after the mixture before sample compaction for improving the mixture of  
 151 water and soil. The FEBEX powder water content was around 13.0% at laboratory conditions  
 152 (stored inside plastic bags, the laboratory temperature was around 25°C and the relative  
 153 humidity around 50%). Some tests in FEBEX bentonite were performed with a water content  
 154 lower than 13.0%, in this case, the powder for manufacturing the samples was dried in the oven  
 155 and the water was added after the powder was cooled. The water content in all cases was also

measured following the procedure indicated in ASTM<sup>32</sup>. The samples were uniaxially compacted in steel moulds with pistons in both sides of the sample in order to have as much as uniform dry density distribution and minimize the effect of the friction between mould and soil during the compaction process. All FEBEX and MX-80 samples except samples HP1, HP2 and HP3 had a diameter of 38 mm and height around 78 mm. Samples HP1, HP2 and HP3 had a diameter of 50 mm and height around 100 mm (they were tested in another resonant column with higher confinement pressure capacity).

The Proctor plane was used to map different initial states, which covered a dry density range between 1.43 and 1.75 Mg/m<sup>3</sup> with degrees of saturation between  $S_r=51\%$  and 96% in MX-80 bentonite (Figure 1) and a dry density range between 1.54 and 1.74 Mg/m<sup>3</sup> with degrees of saturation between  $S_r=11\%$  and 86% in FEBEX bentonite. The exact target dry density in compacted soils is difficult to reach due to the rebound effect: the samples expand when are extracted after the compaction process. This expansion cannot be controlled and for this reason it is not possible to have a set of samples with exactly the same dry density. This density was calculated with the dimensions of the samples after the compaction.

For a given water content and dry density, the pore distribution is not the same in the samples compacted for the resonant column tests as would be expected for the buffer blocks. This difference may result in different pore distributions because the initial water content and the history of the water content changes are different. This could also have influenced the water retention curve measurement because the initial state of the bentonite in the deposition holes is different than the initial state of the samples when the water retention curve was measured, which was drier. This is due to the hysteresis of the water retention curve: when the sample starts wetting, it does not follow the main wetting path from the beginning, it starts moving from a point between the main drying path and main wetting path till reaching the main wetting path. When the water retention curve is measured drying or wetting the sample from a certain



degree of saturation, the final state could be on the hysteresis path, without reaching the main drying or wetting path (Seiphoori et al.<sup>33</sup>). More information about the water retention curve in MX-80 and FEBEX can be found in Kiviranta et al.<sup>9</sup> and Enresa<sup>10</sup> respectively.

The confining (isotropic) pressure on the soil was applied using compressed air. The valves for drainage were open till reaching the steady state conditions in vertical displacements and remained open during the measurement of the shear modulus. The water content was considered constant (no drainage was expected because the samples were in unsaturated conditions). For measuring the changes in height of the sample during the consolidation stages, a displacement sensor (LVDT) was incorporated in the setups for MX-80 samples. The time evolution of the vertical strain was measured in all the samples in order to control the time needed to reach the end of the consolidation period after the isotropic stress increments and to assure that the water pressure reached the steady state conditions.

The time required for the consolidation of the samples was variable due to differences in the degree of saturation and dry density of the samples. Figure 2 shows the time required to perform each MX-80 test with different pore pressure equalisation stages (four confining stresses at the Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya and five at the University of Southampton) as a function of the degree of saturation. As confinement pressure was applied using dry compressed air, in the long duration tests some small mass of water was lost due to vapour diffusion (evaporation) through the latex membrane. The tests done in high pressure cell had a membrane of butyl to minimize the water mass loss. The maximum water mass loss was 2.5% after 23 days of consolidation.

The vertical strains ( $\varepsilon_z$ ) as function of the confinement pressures are presented in Figure 3. Some selected MX-80 samples have been represented (no measures were taken with FEBEX bentonite). This dependence can be approximated by the function:

$$\varepsilon_z = \alpha + \beta \ln(p) \quad (6)$$

205 The relation  $\beta = \Delta\varepsilon_z / \Delta \ln(p)$  is plotted in Figure 4. Values from  $1.5 \times 10^{-3}$  to  $0.8 \times 10^{-3}$  have been  
 206 obtained for the parameter  $\beta$  in the range of dry densities from 1.55 to 1.7 Mg/m<sup>3</sup> and for  
 207 degrees of saturation between 51 and 96%. The tests done with high pressure test set-up are not  
 208 at the same tendency due to the value of the slope  $\beta$  is higher for the highest confinement  
 209 pressures showing an “apparent preconsolidation pressure” that ranges between 400 to 1000  
 210 kPa depending on dry density and water content of the samples. This behaviour was not  
 211 expected due to the high compaction pressures applied when the samples were prepared,  
 212 especially in high density. The axial compaction pressure was expected to be higher than 10  
 213 MPa<sup>34</sup>.

214 The value of  $\kappa = \Delta e / \Delta \ln(p)$  was calculated<sup>35</sup> in isotropic tests on MX-80. For comparing  $\beta$   
 215 (equation 4) with  $\kappa$ , the following relation should be used:

$$\kappa = \frac{3\beta}{\rho_d / \rho_s} \quad (5)$$

216 where  $\rho_d$  and  $\rho_s$  are the dry and solid densities, respectively. The material is considered  
 217 isotropic, that is, the strains are the same in the three principal axes when the stress applied on  
 218 the sample is isotropic.

219 The average value of  $\kappa$  calculated<sup>35</sup> for a degree of saturation of 51% and dry density of 1.82  
 220 Mg/m<sup>3</sup> was  $\kappa = 7.5 \times 10^{-3}$  ( $\beta = 1.7 \times 10^{-3}$ ). This value is close to values presented in Figure 4 but  
 221 higher in many cases. Although the dry density is slightly higher<sup>35</sup>, its degree of saturation is  
 222 lower and it could have the effect of reducing the stiffness of the sample. The values of  $\kappa$   
 223 calculated in high pressure tests are higher because they could include also the effect of visco-  
 224 plastic strains.

The confinement pressure reduces the porosity and increases the dry density. The degree of saturation also increases due to the water content remains constant in all test. It is possible to calculate the volumetric strain assuming a value for the bulk modulus in the confinement pressure step. If the material is considered as isotropic and linear elastic, the bulk modulus ( $K$ ) can be calculated with the equation:

$$K = \frac{p}{3\epsilon_z} \quad (6)$$

The material was compacted uniaxially, so the hypothesis of isotropic behaviour could not be true. There are a few tests which study the anisotropy of the bentonite due to the compaction process. In FEBEX bentonite, Villar<sup>36</sup> measured the hydraulic conductivity and swelling pressure among other properties in samples drilled in blocks compacted uniaxially. The samples were drilled parallel and perpendicular to the compaction direction. The results showed that there does not seem to be significant anisotropy in FEBEX samples. In MX-80 bentonite, some measures of uniaxial compression tests were done in samples compacted by different ways<sup>37</sup>. The results did not show anisotropy in MX-80 samples and, with the hypothesis of isotropy, the bulk modulus was calculated.

The shear modulus at small strain ( $\sim 10^{-4}$  %),  $G_0$ , as function of the confinement pressure is plotted in Figure 5 and Figure 6 for MX-80 and FEBEX bentonites, respectively. The shear modulus increases with the confinement pressure as expected. The results are presented in Tables 1 and 2 as well.

The small-strain shear modulus as function of the degree of saturation is shown in Figure 7 when the confinement pressure is 800 kPa. In this Figure, the changes in the degree of saturation due to compressibility of MX-80 are considered, for FEBEX bentonite the initial degrees of saturation have been plotted. The changes in volume during the tests are small and it can be

seen that they do not alter the tendency of the results. On the other hand, from the figures it is clear than the shear modulus increases with the dry density.

The small-strain shear modulus for a confinement stress of 800 kPa is also plotted in a compaction plane and in a contour plot (Figure 8) as function of dry density and degree of saturation. The MX-80 small-strain shear modulus seems to have a maximum for degrees of saturation around 75%. The contour plots in FEBEX bentonite do not give a clear tendency with regards to the degree of saturation. For both clays, the stiffness increases when the dry density increases.

This behaviour is not consistent with the results presented by Suriol et al.<sup>17</sup> and Hoyos et al.<sup>18</sup>, who show a monotonic increase of the shear modulus with the increase of the suction, which is equivalent to a decrease of the degree of saturation. Merchán<sup>38</sup> measured the shear modulus for moderately swelling clay (Boom clay, Romero et al.<sup>39</sup>) and a maximum in shear modulus as function of the degree of saturation was measured. It should be taken into account that the soil tested by Suriol et al.<sup>17</sup> was low plasticity silty clay (CL following the USCS) and the soil tested by Hoyos et al.<sup>18</sup> was silty sand (SM following the USCS) while the Boom clay has a plasticity closer to the FEBEX bentonite.

### **Interpretation of the results**

The relationship between the confinement pressure  $p$  expressed in MPa and the small-strain shear modulus  $G_0$  can be related by power law function (see equation (2)):

$$G_0 = G_{0.1}(p/0.1)^n \quad (7)$$

where the parameter  $G_{0.1}$  is associated with the value of the initial shear modulus at the reference confinement pressure of 0.1 MPa and  $n$  is a parameter which takes into account the increase of the shear modulus with the confinement pressure. Figure 9 shows that the parameter  $n$  seems

to decrease when the degree of saturation increases in FEBEX bentonite (about 0.6 for  $S_r=60\%$  and 0.1 to 0.2 for  $S_r$  greater than 80%) but any clear tendency cannot be seen for MX-80.

The variation of the shear modulus ( $G$ ) with the shear strain ( $\gamma$ ) is shown in Figure 10 for a confinement stress of 800 kPa. The shear modulus begins to reduce when the shear strain increases beyond certain strain level, below which the material exhibits linear elastic behaviour. Going through the Figure 11, it is possible to see that this threshold strain ranges between  $10^{-3}\%$  and  $20 \times 10^{-3}\%$  for MX-80 and from  $10^{-3}\%$  to  $200 \times 10^{-3}\%$  in the case of FEBEX bentonite. This difference could be attributed to the soil plasticity, indicated by plasticity index of the soil. Plastic Index of MX-80 is 450% against 49% for FEBEX bentonite, indicating 10-fold difference in the index value and thus the shift in their threshold shear strain level. Vucetic and Dobry<sup>39</sup> showed higher values of  $G/G_0$  for the same value of shear strain when the plasticity index is higher although this result was in contradiction with the results from Kagawa<sup>40</sup>, probably due to the scatter of the results.

In Figure 11, the ratio  $G/G_0$  is compared with other studies as well. The soils are quite different but it is possible to see that the results are between the extreme values presented by Suriol et al.<sup>17</sup> in a CL material with a confinement pressure of 200 kPa, Borden et al.<sup>42</sup> for a piedmont residual soil (MH, with a confinement pressure of 100 kPa) and Kagawa<sup>40</sup> for a marine clay (MH with a consolidation stress between 50 and 1400 kPa) showed values close to the values presented by the MX-80 and FEBEX bentonites. It is also important to consider that the maximum shear modulus ( $G_0$ ) measured in bentonites is higher than the  $G_0$  measured in soils tested by these authors, so Borden et al.<sup>42</sup> measured a  $G_0$  around 45 MPa, Suriol<sup>17</sup> around 50 MPa and Kagawa<sup>40</sup> presented a wide range of results, up to 120 MPa. The ratio  $G/G_0$  presented in Figure 11 can also be compared with the results presented in Vucetic and Dobry<sup>39</sup>, however, the results reported by these authors do not pertain to bentonite clays, which have usually higher plasticity index than the maximum reported in their work (around 100%). Only the 0.01% shear

strain can be compared as it was not possible to reach 0.1% shear strain in the resonant column tests performed in this work. The range of  $G/G_0$  measured in MX-80 was between 0.77-0.98 but with the average closer to 0.98 than to 0.77 and in FEBEX bentonite it was between 0.75-0.93 with the average closer to 0.93 than to 0.73. The ranges expected from Vucetic and Dobry<sup>39</sup> are between 0.95-1 for MX-80 (plasticity index higher than 150%) and 0.85-1 for FEBEX bentonite (plasticity index around 50%). Although the scatter of the measurements is high, it is possible to conclude that the results are close to the values expected from Vucetic and Dobry<sup>39</sup> and the lower values of  $G/G_0$  correspond to the bentonite with lower plasticity index. It should also be said that other bentonites have been reported to have high plasticity indices, especially sodium bentonites. For example, sodium GMZ bentonite has a plasticity index of 239% and calcium GMZ bentonite only 58%, Sun et al.<sup>41</sup>. Another example is Akagi calcium bentonite with a plasticity index of 268% and Kunigel sodium bentonite at 471%, Shirazi et al.<sup>42</sup>.

To analyse the variation of the shear modulus with the strain level, the “hardening soil model with small strain stiffness” used in PLAXIS<sup>43</sup> can be used:

$$G(\gamma) = \frac{G_0}{1 + 0.385 \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{0.7}}} \quad (8)$$

where  $\gamma_{0.7}$  corresponds to the strain at which the modulus  $G$  is  $0.722G_0$ . This equation is similar to the equation presented by Borden et al.<sup>44</sup> but with two parameters less. The Figure 12 presents the test results and predicted values using this model for some tests and Figure 13 shows a correlation between the parameter  $\gamma_{0.7}$  and the shear modulus at small strains.  $\gamma_{0.7}$  varies between 0.01% in samples with a maximum shear modulus of about 200 MPa to 0.1% in samples with a maximum shear modulus about 400 MPa.

The value of  $\gamma_{0.7}$  can be assessed. The values measured at high-range of strains are closer to the values calculated from these authors than the values measured at low-range. The relation between the plastic index and  $\gamma_{0.7}$  as a parameter that indicates how the shear modulus drops when the shear strains increase is presented in Figure 14. The tests presented by Kagawa<sup>40</sup> were performed in saturated conditions, with a wide range of dry densities (1.1-1.6 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>) and a plastic index between 23 and 36%. The tests presented by Borden et al.<sup>44</sup> were performed in unsaturated conditions (degree of saturation between 66-88%) and a dry density between 1.02 and 1.2 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>. The results presented by Suriol et al.<sup>17</sup> correspond to a material with a degree of saturation of 80%, dry density between 1.65 and 1.85 Mg/m<sup>3</sup> and plastic index of 12%. Despite the dispersion due to the effects of dry density and saturation of the different samples, a tendency of increase of  $\gamma_{0.7}$  with soil plasticity is clear, according with the results of Vucetic and Dobry<sup>39</sup>.

To interpret the effects of the degree of saturation and confinement stress, the model presented by Alonso et al.<sup>22</sup> has been selected. These authors suggested that unsaturated soil behaviour may be modelled in terms of two independent fields. 1) Constitutive stress ( $\bar{p}$ ):

$$\bar{p} = p - P_g + \bar{S}_r s \quad (9)$$

and 2) effective suction ( $\bar{s}$ ):

$$\bar{s} = \bar{S}_r s \quad (10)$$

where  $p$  is the total mean stress,  $P_g$  is the gas pressure (0 for atmospheric conditions) and  $s$  the suction.

The effective degree of saturation  $\bar{S}_r$  was introduced by Romero and Vaunat<sup>45</sup> and indicates the “degree of saturation” of the macroscopic level in a double structured soil. In the framework of the model of Alonso et al.<sup>22</sup>, only the water which fills the macropores has mechanical effects.

At low degrees of saturation, the water fills the micropores in the clay aggregates, but the water content of the aggregates has no influence on the global mechanical behaviour<sup>23</sup>. This approach may be appropriate when the soil has a clear double structure, such as compacted bentonites.

According to Alonso et al.<sup>22</sup>, the effective degree of saturation can be expressed by the following equation:

$$\overline{S_r} = \frac{S_r - \xi_m}{1 - \xi_m} + \frac{1}{n_s} \ln \left[ 1 + \exp \left( -n_s \frac{S_r - \xi_m}{1 - \xi_m} \right) \right] \quad (11)$$

where  $\xi_m = e_m/e$  is a microstructural state variable that indicates the ratio between the microstructural void ratio ( $e_m$ ) and the total void ratio ( $e$ ).  $n_s$  is a model parameter that defines the degree of smoothing of Equation (11) around point  $S_r = \xi_m$ . The value chosen for  $n_s$  is 3 as in Alonso et al.<sup>22</sup>.

The  $e_m$  can be calculated from the pore size distribution obtained by the mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP). As a first approximation, a linear relationship between  $e_m$  and  $e_w$  (water volume / solid volume ratio defined as  $V_w/V_s = e S_r$ ) can be proposed<sup>46</sup>:

$$e_m = e_m^* + \beta_m \langle e_w - e_m^* \rangle \quad (12)$$

where  $\langle \rangle$  designates the Macaulay brackets (ramp function). For  $e_w < e_m^*$  a constant  $e_m = e_m^*$  results. According to Figure 15, for a dry sample compacted in MX-80 with a dry density of 1.80 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>, the  $e_m$  is 0.29 (as compacted). Fixing this value as  $e_m^*$ ,  $\beta_m$  can be calculated and its value is 0.55. The values of  $e_m^*$  and  $\beta_m$  are 0.53 and 0.40 in FEBEX bentonite<sup>47</sup>. The analysis of Figure 16 gives similar values. The  $e_m$  can also be calculated from the water retention curve<sup>48,49</sup> (and Figure 15 and Figure 16). In this approach, the microporosity is evaluated taking



into account the water content for which the effect of dry density (macroporosity) has not effect in water retention curve.

According to the empirical proposal<sup>20</sup> and using the constitutive stress  $(\bar{p})^{22}$ , shear modulus at very small strains ( $G_0$ ), can be obtained using the following empirical equation:

$$G_0 = C \frac{(A - e_M)^B}{1 + e_M} \left( \frac{\bar{p}}{p_{ref}} \right)^{1/2} OCR^k p_{ref} \quad (13)$$

where  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are constants depending of the soil,  $e_M$  the macrostructural void ratio ( $e - e_m$ ), parameter  $k$  depends on clay plasticity index. For a plasticity index of higher than 100 (MX-80), the value of  $k$  is 0.5 and for a plasticity index between 40 and 60 (FEBEX), the value is 0.355<sup>20</sup>.  $p_{ref}$  is a pressure reference (usually 100 kPa) and the overconsolidation ratio (OCR) is defined as  $\overline{p_{max}}/\bar{p}$ . In the case of compacted sample,  $\overline{p_{max}} = p_{compaction} + s\overline{S_r}$ . The compaction pressure in MX-80 bentonite has been evaluated<sup>37</sup> and the compaction pressure in FEBEX bentonite has also been evaluated<sup>50</sup>. The more compaction pressure is the more  $G_0$  obtained. The sample suctions have been calculated from the water retention curve of each bentonite and the changes in dry density due to the increase in confinement stress have been discarded.

The selected values of the constants  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are the same presented Vucetic and Dobry<sup>39</sup> for overconsolidated clays. The values of the parameter  $k$  have been obtained using a least square procedure with the measured values of  $G_0$ . The obtained values of the parameters are shown in Table 3. Finally, the values of  $G_0$  measured and calculated are also presented in the compaction plane shown in Figure 17. The calculated isolines show a tendency of shear modulus increment when the water content or the dry density increases.

Figure 18 illustrates the contribution of constitutive confining stress, overconsolidation ratio and macrovoid ratio to rigidity changes. For a given dry density, the major influence on shear

modulus is due to constitutive confining stress. In FEBEX clay a clear maximum for a degree of saturation of 80% can be observed. For high degrees of saturation, the decrease of suction prevails whereas for low degrees of saturation, the effective saturation degree tends to be small. In the MX-80 clay, only the effects of the suction decrement when the degree of saturation is high can be appreciated. The effect of overconsolidation ratio has a minimum for a degree of saturation near 80% where the compaction effort was minimum, in a similar process than the one observed in the optimum of Proctor curves. For a constant dry density, the effect of macrovoid ratio is only appreciable for high degrees of saturation, where  $e_w$  is higher than  $e_m^*$ .

## Conclusions

The measurement of the small-strain shear modulus has been done for two different bentonites which are candidates for the Engineered Barrier System in a deep geological spent nuclear fuel disposal, the MX-80 in Sweden and Finland and the FEBEX in Spain. The shear moduli measured are relatively high for a plastic clay, probably due to the high dry densities reached (the compaction degree is quite high) and the high ranges of suctions in bentonites<sup>22,48</sup>. The shear modulus increases with the dry density and the confinement pressure as it was expected but the experimental results do not show a clear tendency with the degree of saturation. In the case of MX-80 bentonite, for a given dry density a maximum value of rigidity may be observed when the degree of saturation is around 70-80% whereas in the case of FEBEX bentonite this maximum is less evident. Some authors indicate that the shear modulus increases with the suction (or when the degree of saturation reduces) but other authors indicate that the shear modulus has a maximum with relative low degrees of saturation, probably due to the different type of soils presented in different works. The tests presented in this work do not cover the full range of suctions.

The relation between the plastic index and  $\gamma_{0.7}$ , which indicates how the shear modulus drops with the shear strains is not clear. Most of the values of  $\gamma_{0.7}$  measured in FEBEX bentonite were lower than the values measured by Kagawa (1992) although its plasticity index is higher. The values of  $\gamma_{0.7}$  measured in MX-80 varied over a wide range. The value of the plasticity index for bentonites is high, so it is possible that a correlation between this parameter and  $\gamma_{0.7}$  cannot be reasonably established.

Although the scatter in the measures is significant, it is possible to assign a limiting value for the shear modulus and predict the evolution as a function of the shear strains and the confinement pressure from equations (7) and (8) in order to have a safety value for the stresses developed in the canister containing the spent nuclear fuel during an earthquake.

The proposed model can be a useful tool to interpret the test results and allows the researchers interested in the measurement of the shear modulus to evaluate the effects of relevant variables (water content, dry density, compaction effort and confining stress) on this parameter.

## **Acknowledgements**

Financial support of POSIVA Oy (Finland) through a collaboration agreement with B+TECH Oy (now Saanio & Riekkola Oy) and CIMNE (Spain) “Small-strain stiffness of statically compacted MX-80 bentonite using resonant column tests” (2013-2014) and a second collaboration agreement with the University of Southampton (United Kingdom) “Shear modulus and damping properties of unsaturated bentonite” are greatly acknowledged. Authors appreciate the management work from Kari Koskinen (POSIVA, Oy).

## **References**

[1] Posiva. Safety Case for the Disposal of Spent Nuclear Fuel at Olkiluoto. Performance Assessment 2012. Posiva Report 2012-04. Eurajoki, Finland; 2012.

- 420 [2] SKB. Design, production and initial state of the closure. SKB Technical report TR-10-17,  
421 Stockholm, Sweden; 2010.
- 422 [3] Juvankoski M, Marcos N. Design Basis for Buffer Components. Posiva Working report  
423 2009-132, Eurajoki, Finland; 2010.
- 424 [4] Posiva. KBS-3H Complementary Studies 2008-2010. Posiva Report 2013-03, Eurajoki,  
425 Finland; 2013.
- 426 [5] B rgesson L. Model Shear Tests of Canisters with Smectite Clay Envelopes in Deposition  
427 Holes. SKB Technical Report 86-26, Stockholm, Sweden; 1986.
- 428 [6] B rgesson L, Johannesson LE, Hernelind J. Earthquake induced rock shear through a  
429 deposition hole. Effect on the canister and the buffer. SKB Technical report TR-04-02,  
430 Stockholm, Sweden; 2004.
- 431 [7] Alonso, E., Gens, A., Josa, A. A constitutive model for partially saturated soils.  
432 *G otechnique* 1990; 40(3): 405-430
- 433 [8] Kiviranta L, Kumpulainen S. Quality Control and Characterization of Bentonite Materials.  
434 Posiva Working report 2011-84, Eurajoki, Finland; 2011. Material codes Be-Wy—  
435 VT0002-BT1, BT2 and BT3-Sa-R.
- 436 [9] Kiviranta L, Kumpulainen S, Pintado X, Karttunen P, Schatz T. Characterization of  
437 bentonite and clay materials 2012 - 2015. Posiva working report 2016-05, Eurajoki,  
438 Finland; 2016.
- 439 [10] Enresa. FEBEX project. Full-scale engineered barriers experimental for a deep  
440 geological repository for high level radioactive waste in crystalline rock. Final Report.  
441 Enresa technical publication 1/2000; Madrid, Spain; 2000.

- 442 [11] Börgesson L, Johansson LE, Sandén T, Hernelind J. Modelling of the physical behaviour  
443 of water saturated clay barriers. Laboratory tests, material models and finite element  
444 application. SKB Technical report TR-95-20, Stockholm, Sweden; 1995.
- 445 [12] Dueck A, Börgesson L, Johansson LE. Stress-strain relation of bentonite at undrained  
446 shear. Laboratory tests to investigate the influence of material composition and test  
447 technique. SKB Technical report TR-10-32, Stockholm, Sweden; 2010.
- 448 [13] Edil TB, Motan SE, Toha FX. Mechanical behaviour and testing methods of unsaturated  
449 soils. In R.N. Yong & F.C. Townsend (eds), *Laboratory of strength of soil ASTM STP*  
450 1981;740:114-129. Philadelphia: American Society for Testing and Materials.
- 451 [14] Wu S, Gray DH, Richart FE. Capillary effects on dynamic modulus of sands and silts.  
452 *Journal of Geotechnical engineering division ASCE* 1984;119(9):1188-1203.
- 453 [15] Mancuso C, Vassallo R, d'Onofrio A. Small strain behaviour of a silty sand in controlled-  
454 suction resonant column-torsional shear tests. *Canadian Geotechnical Journal*  
455 2002;49(2):226-243.
- 456 [16] Vassallo R. Mancuso C. Vinale F. Effects of net stress and suction history on the small  
457 strain stiffness of a compacted clayey silt. *Canadian Geotechnical Journal*  
458 2007;44(4):447-462.
- 459 [17] Suriol J, Romero E, Lloret A, Vaunat J. Small-strain shear stiffness of compacted clays:  
460 Initial state and microstructural features. *Proceedings of the 6th International Conference*  
461 *on Unsaturated Soils, Sydney, 2014. Unsaturated Soils: Research and Applications, Taylor*  
462 *& Francis Group, London* 2014;(1):769-775.

- 463 [18] Hoyos RL, Suescún-Florez EA, Puppala AJ. Stiffness of intermediate unsaturated soil from  
464 simultaneous suction – controlled resonant column and bender element testing.  
465 *Engineering Geology* 2015;188:10-28.
- 466 [19] Madhusudhan BN, Kumar J. Damping of Sands for Varying Saturation. *Journal of*  
467 *Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering* 2013;139(9):1625-1630.
- 468 [20] Hardin BO, Black WL. Closure to vibration modulus of normally consolidated clay.  
469 *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering ASCE* 1969;95(6):1531-1537.
- 470 [21] Cascante G, Santamarina JC. Interparticle contact behaviour and wave propagation.  
471 *Journal of geotechnical engineering* 1996;122(10):831-839.
- 472 [22] Alonso EE, Pinyol NM, Gens, A. Compacted soil behaviour: initial state, structure and  
473 constitutive modelling. *Géotechnique* 2013;63(6):463–478.
- 474 [23] Alonso EE, Pereira JM, Vaunat J, Olivella S. A microstructurally based effective stress for  
475 unsaturated soils. *Géotechnique* 2010;60(12):913-925.
- 476 [24] Heitor A, Indraranta B, Cholach C. Laboratory study of small-strain behaviour of a  
477 compacted silty sand. *Canadian Geotechnical Journal* 2013;50:179-188.
- 478 [25] Biglari M, Ashayeri I. An empirical model for shear modulus and damping ratio in  
479 unsaturated soils. In *Jotisankasa, Sawangsuriya, Soralump and Mairaing (eds).*  
480 *Unsaturated Soils: Theory and Practice*, 2011;591-595. Kesetsart University, Thailand.
- 481 [26] Biglari M, Mancuso C. d’Onofrio A, Javari MK, Shafiee A. Modelling the initial shear  
482 stiffness of unsaturated soils as a function of the coupled effects of the void ratio and the  
483 degree of saturation. *Computers and Geotechnics* 2011;38(5):709-720.

- 484 [27] Gallipoli D, Gens A, Sharma R, Vaunat J. An elastoplastic model for unsaturated soils  
485 incorporating the effect of suction and degree of saturation on mechanical behaviour.  
486 *Géotechnique* 2003;53(1):123-155.
- 487 [28] Ikonen, K., Raiko, H. Thermal dimensionin of Olkiluoto repository for spent fuel. Posiva  
488 working report 2012-56. Eurajoki, Finland; 2012.
- 489 [29] Anderson DG, Stokoe KH, 1978. Shear modulus: A time-dependent soil property. *ASTM*  
490 *Special Technical Publication 'Dynamic Geotechnical Testing'* 1978;654:66-90.
- 491 [30] ASTM. Standard test methods for modulus and damping of soils by the resonant-column  
492 method. Annual book of ASTM STANDARDS, Vol. 04-08, D-4015. Philadelphia:  
493 American Society for Testing and Materials; 2001.
- 494 [31] Clayton CRI. Stiffness at small strain: research and practice. *Géotechnique* 2011;61(1):5-  
495 37.
- 496 [32] ASTM. Standard test methods for laboratory determination of water (moisture) content of  
497 soil and rock by mass. ASTM D2216-10 standard. Philadelphia: American Society for  
498 Testing and Materials; 2010.
- 499 [33] Seiphoori, A., Ferrari, A., Laloui, L. Water retention behaviour and microstructural  
500 evolution of MX-80 bentonite during wetting and drying cycles. *Géotechnique* 2014;64(9):  
501 721-734.
- 502 [34] Johanesson LE, Börgesson L, Sandén T. Compaction of bentonite blocks. Development of  
503 technique for industrial production of blocks which are manageable by man. SKB  
504 Technical report TR 95-19, Stockholm, Sweden; 1995.

505 [35] Tang AM. *Effect de la temperature sur le comportement des barrières de confinement*.  
506 [Ph.D thesis]. Paris, France: École Nationale des Ponts et Chaussées; 2005.

507 [36] Villar MV. Thermo-hydro-mechanical characterisation of a bentonite from Cabo de Gata.  
508 A study applied to the use of bentonite as sealing material in high level radioactive waste  
509 repositories. Publicación Técnica ENRESA 01/2002. 258 pp. Madrid. Spain; 2002.

510 [37] Johansson LE. Compaction of full size blocks of bentonite for the KBS-3 concept. Initial  
511 tests for evaluation technique. SKB Report R 99-66, Stockholm, Sweden; 1999.

512 [38] Merchán V. *Small strain stiffness and residual strength of unsaturated Boom clay: a micro-*  
513 *structural insight*. [Ph.D thesis]. Barcelona, Spain: Technical University of Catalonia;  
514 2011.

515 [39] Romero E, Gens A, Lloret A. Water permeability, water retention and microstructure of  
516 unsaturated compacted Boom clay. *Engineering Geology* 1999; 54:117-127.

517 [40] Kagawa T. Moduli and damping factors of soft marine clays. *Journal of Geotechnical*  
518 *Engineering* 1992;118(9):1360-1375.

519 [41] Sun, De'an, Sun, W, Fang, L. Swelling characteristics of Gaomiaozi bentonite and its  
520 prediction. *Journal of Rock Mechanics and Geotechnical Engineering* 2014; 6:113-118.

521 [42] Shirazi, SM, Kazama, H, Salman, FA, Othman, F, Shatirah, A. Permeability and swelling  
522 characteristics of bentonite. *International Journal of the Physical Sciences*  
523 2010;5(11):1647-1659.

524 [43] PLAXIS, 2015. Material models manual. [http://www.plaxis.nl/files/files/2D-3-Material-](http://www.plaxis.nl/files/files/2D-3-Material-Models.pdf)  
525 [Models.pdf](http://www.plaxis.nl/files/files/2D-3-Material-Models.pdf)



- 526 [44] Borden, RH, Shao, L., Gupta, A. Dynamic properties of piedemont residual soils. Journal  
527 of Geotechnical Engineering 1996; 122(10): 813-821.
- 528 [45] Romero E, Vaunat J. Retention curves in deformable clays. In A. Tarantino and C.  
529 Mancuso (eds). Experimental evidence and theoretical approaches in unsaturated soils  
530 2001; 91-106. Rotterdam. A.A. Balkema.
- 531 [46] Romero E, Della Vecchia G, Jommi C. An insight into the water retention properties of  
532 compacted clayey soils. *Géotechnique* 2011;61(4):313-328.
- 533 [47] Romero E. A microstructural insight into compacted clayey soils and their hydraulic  
534 properties. *Engineering Geology* 2013;165:3-19.
- 535 [48] Navarro V, Asensio L, De la Morena G, Pintado X, Yustres A. Differentiated intra- and  
536 inter-aggregate water content models of MX-80 bentonite. *Applied Clay Science*  
537 2015;118:325-336.
- 538 [49] Lloret A, Villar MV, Sanchez M, Gens A, Pintado X, Alonso EE. Mechanical behaviour  
539 of heavily compacted bentonite under high suction changes. *Géotechnique* 2003;53(1):27–  
540 40.
- 541 [50] Villar MV, Lloret A. Influence of dry density and water content on the swelling of a  
542 compacted bentonite. *Applied Clay Science* 2008;39:38–49.
- 543 [51] Pintado, X., Kristensson, O., Malmberg, D., Åkesson, M., Olivella, S., Puig, I. TH and  
544 THM modelling of a KBS-3H deposition drift. Posiva working report 2016-25, Eurajoki,  
545 Finland; 2018.

546

547

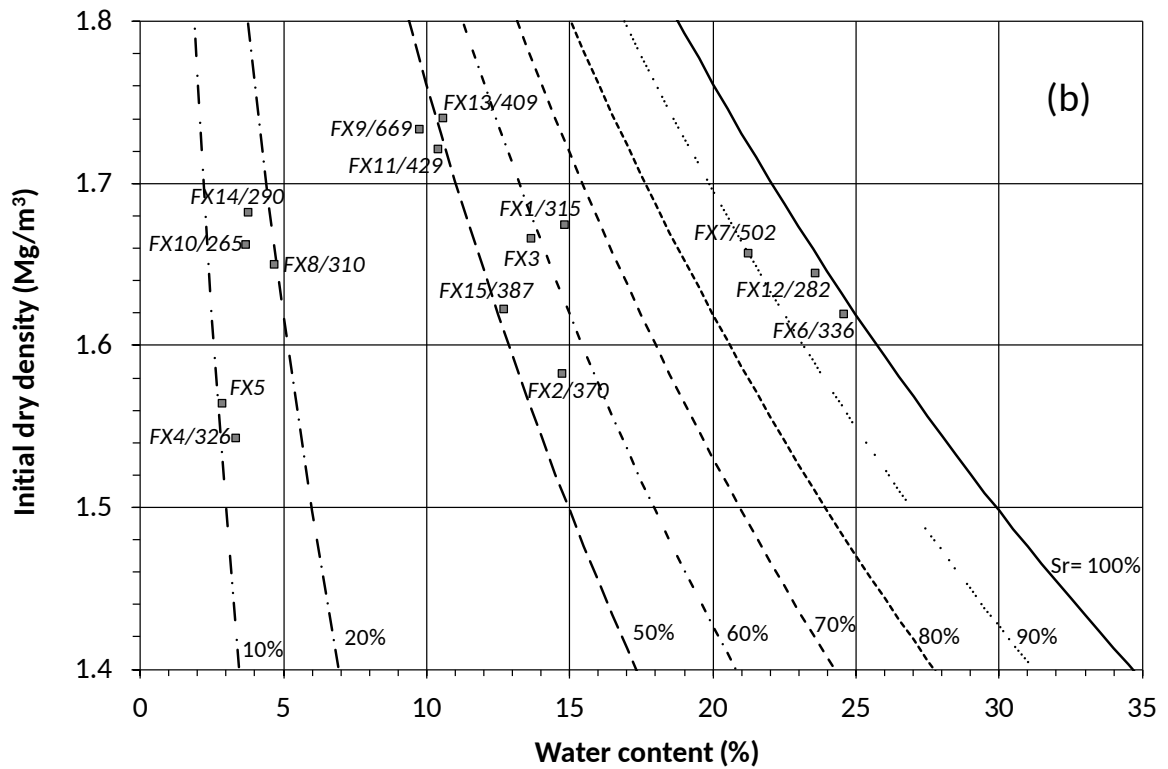
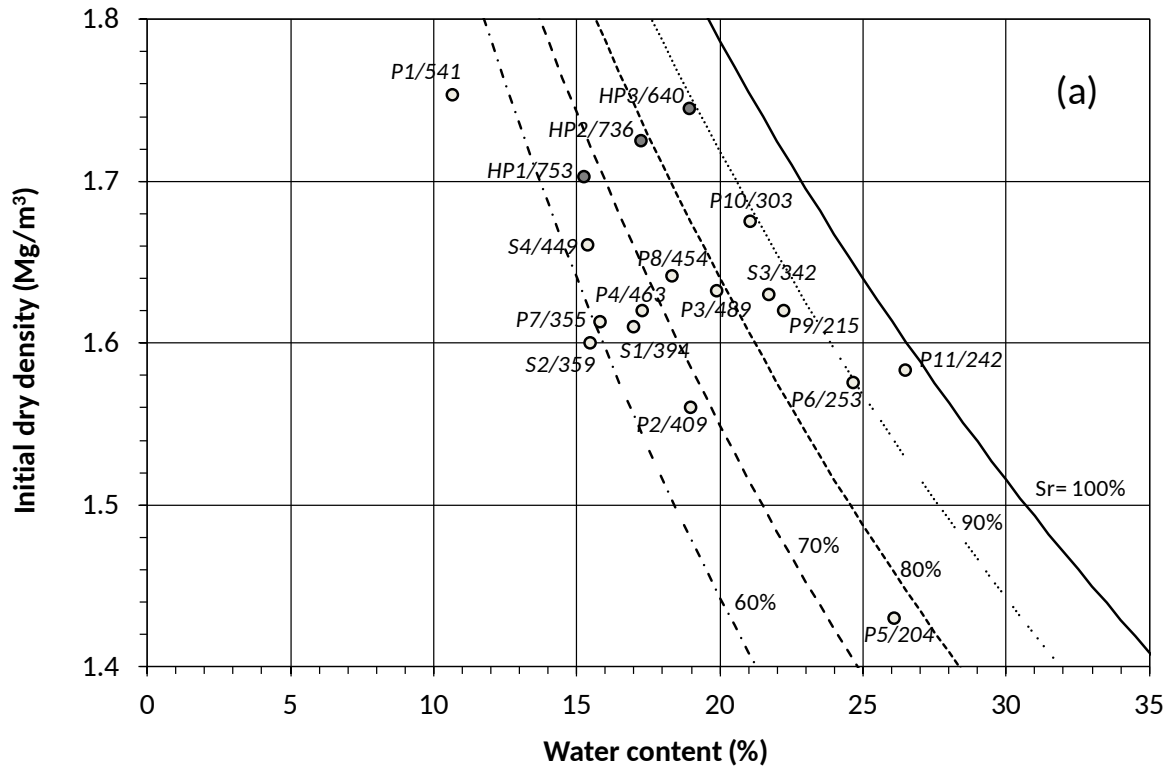
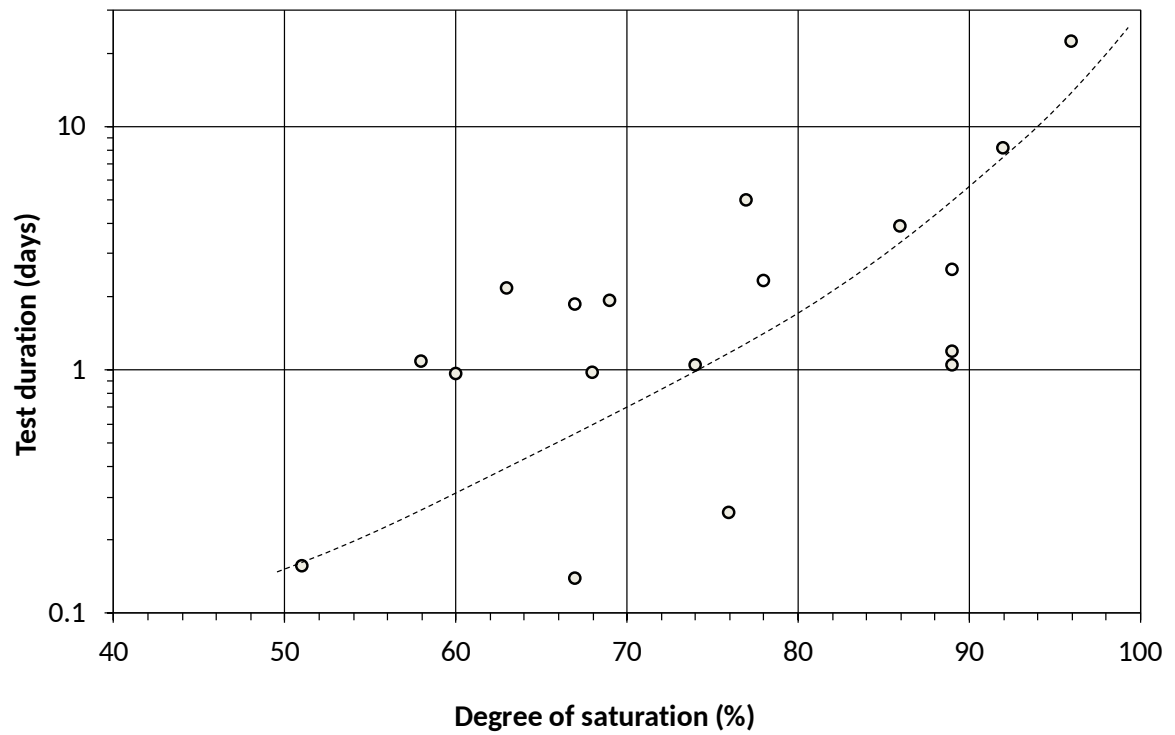


Figure 1. Water contents and dry densities of MX-80 (a) and FEBEX (b) tested samples shown in a compaction plot. The number with the reference of the sample is  $G_0$  (MPa) when the confinement pressure was 800 kPa.

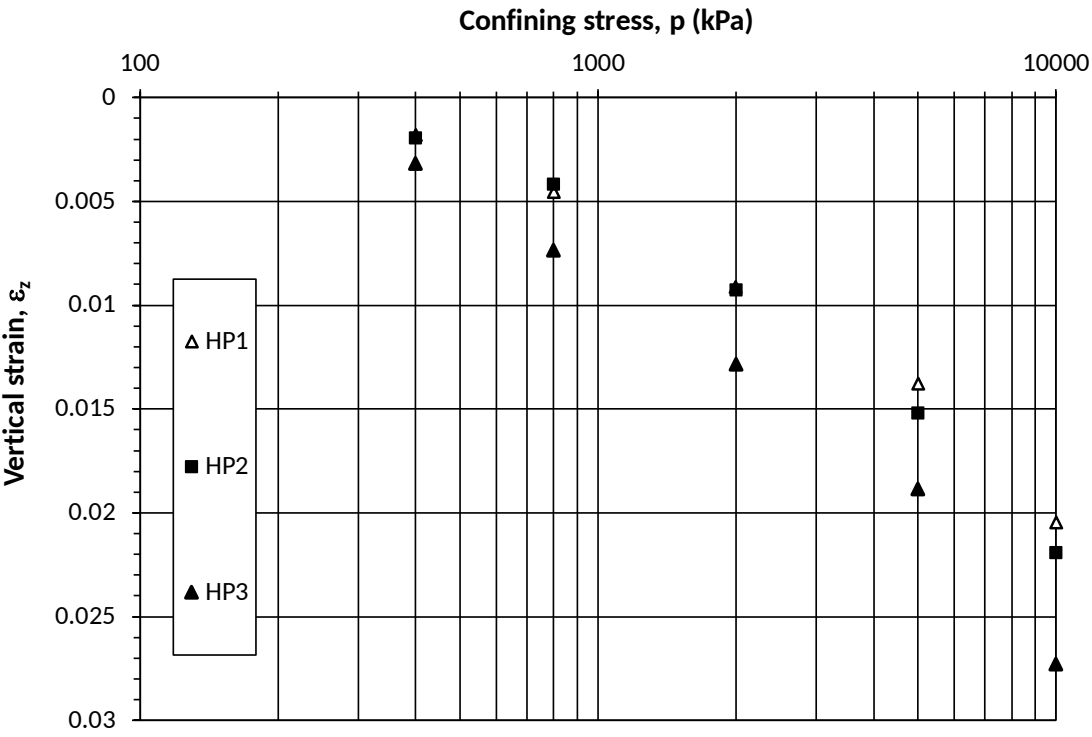


551

552 Figure 2. Time required for performing the tests in order to reach the steady state conditions when there  
 553 was consolidation due to the sample loading.

554

555  
556



557  
558  
559

Figure 3. Relationship between isotropic mean stress ( $p$ ) and vertical strain ( $\epsilon_z$ ) for selected MX-80 samples.

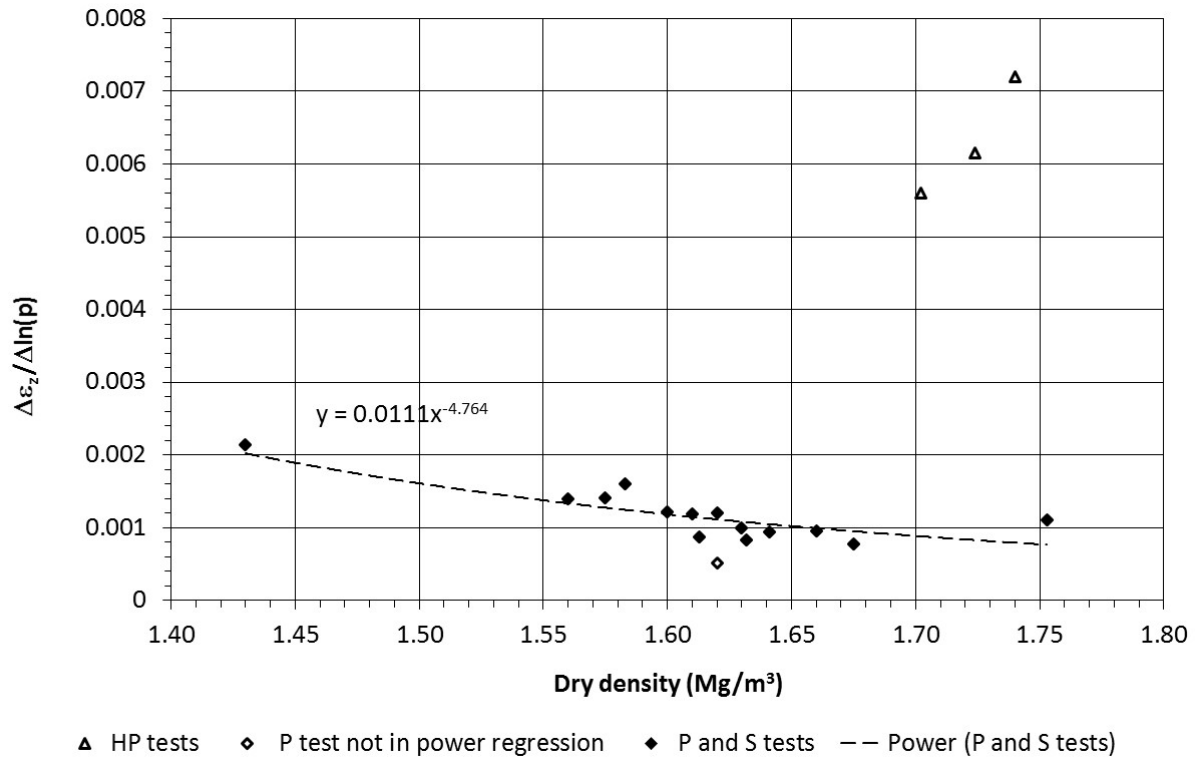
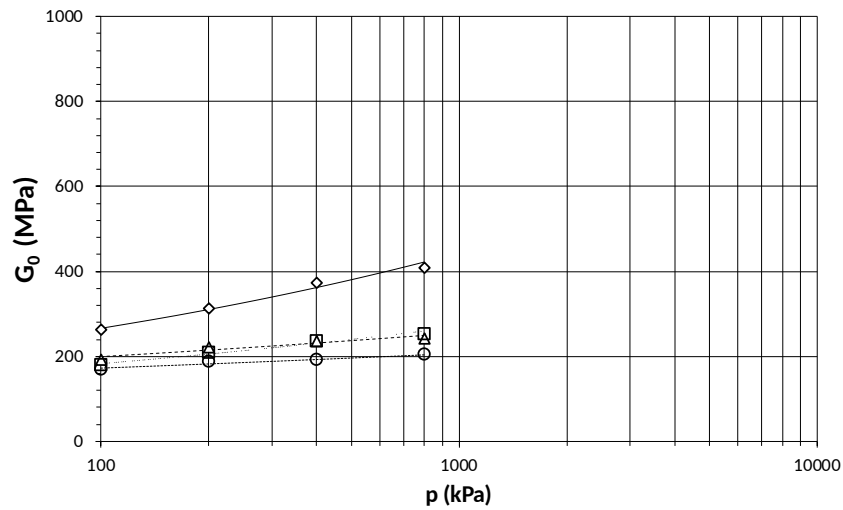
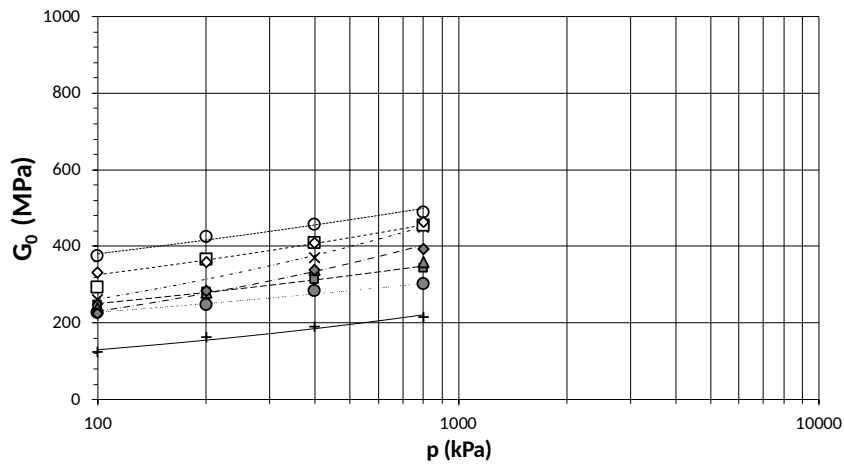


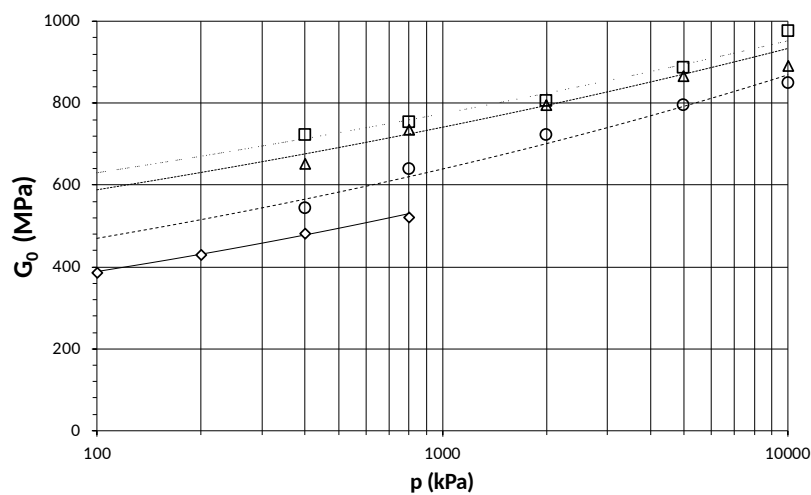
Figure 4. Relationship between isotropic mean stress ( $p$ ) and vertical strain ( $\varepsilon_z$ ) for selected MX-80 samples. HP tests were made in high-pressure test set-up and the tests P and S were done with the low-pressure test set-up (P first series and S second series).



○ 1.43/77    △ 1.58/90    □ 1.58/90    ◇ 1.56/67



+ 1.62/86    ● 1.68/89    ■ 1.63/86    ▲ 1.61/61    ▲ 1.60/58  
 ◇ 1.61/65    × 1.66/62    □ 1.64/74    ◇ 1.62/67    ○ 1.63/79



◇ 1.75/51    □ 1.70/67    ▲ 1.72/78    ○ 1.74/89

565 Figure 5. Small strain shear modulus as function of the confinement pressure in MX-80 bentonite. The  
 566 numbers in legend mean dry density ( $\text{Mg/m}^3$ ) / degree of saturation (%).

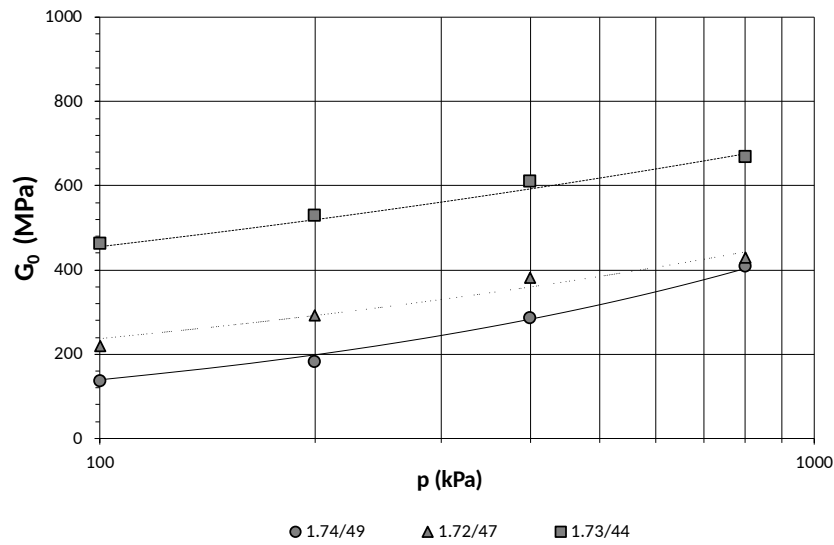
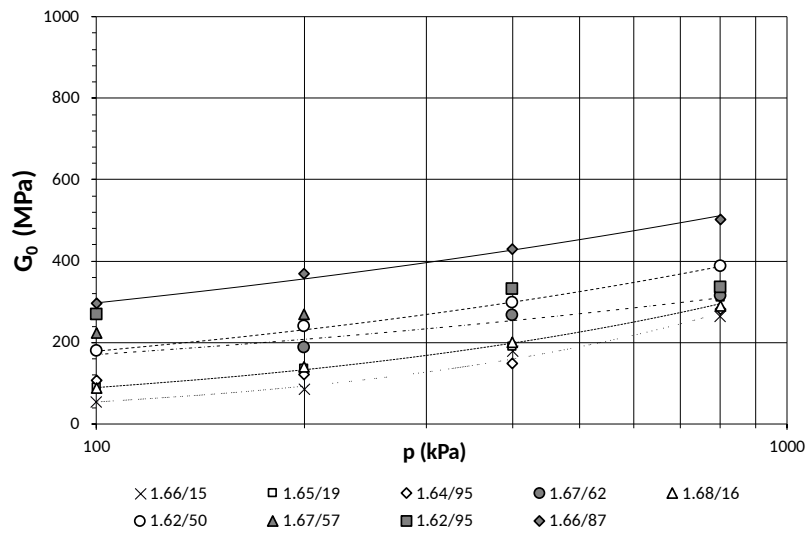
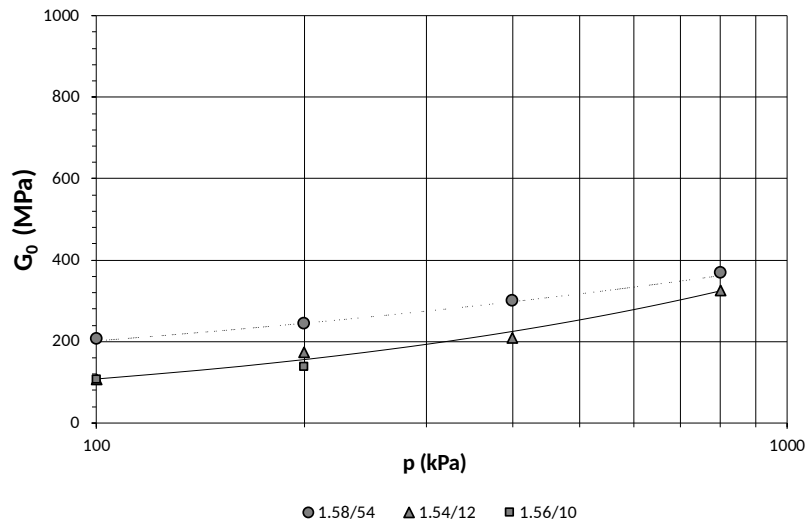


Figure 6. Small strain shear modulus as function of the confinement pressure in FEBEX bentonite. The numbers in legend mean dry density ( $\text{Mg/m}^3$ ) / degree of saturation (%).

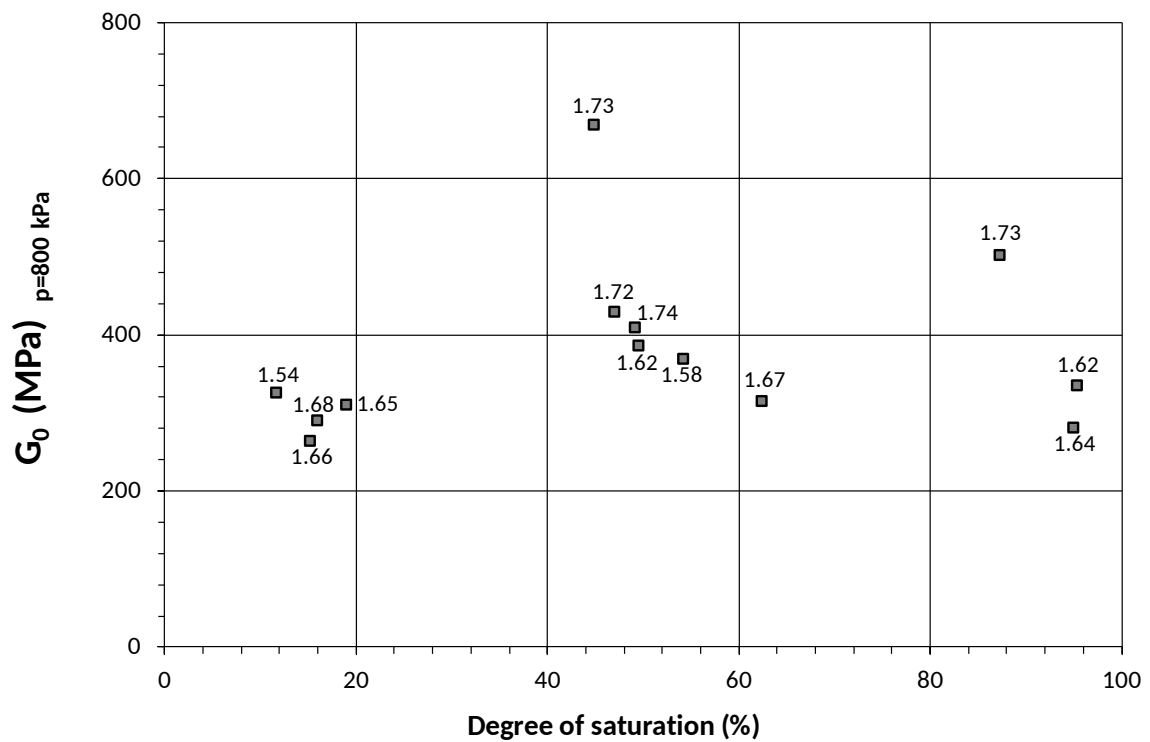
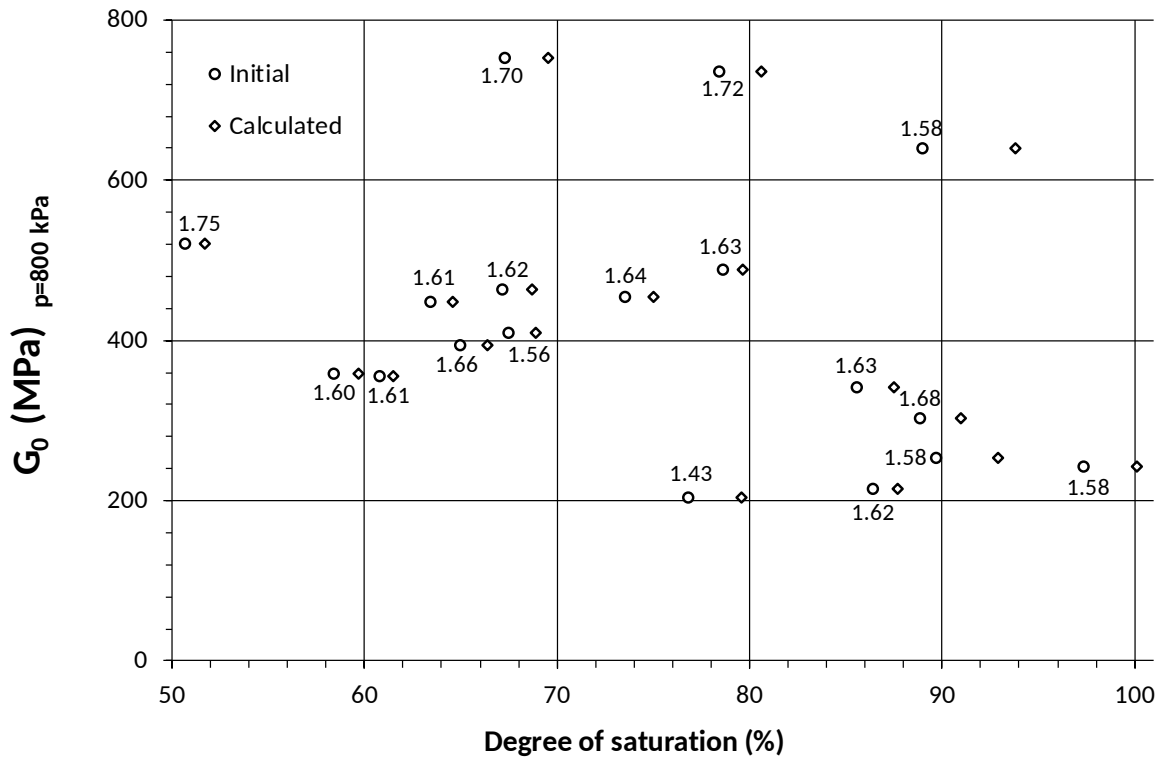


Figure 7. Small strain shear modulus as function of the degree of saturation for different dry densities (Mg/m<sup>3</sup>) when the confinement pressure is 800 kPa. MX-80 on top including the initial degree of saturation and the degree of saturation calculated taking into account the confinement effects. For FEBEX bentonite, at the bottom, only the initial degree of saturation has been considered.



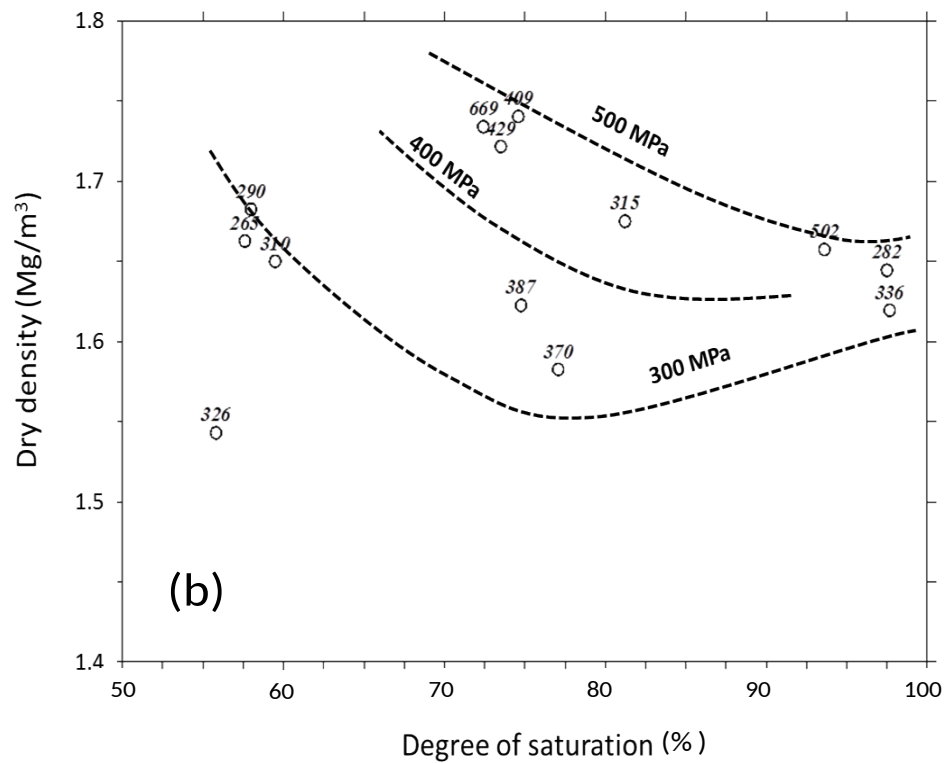
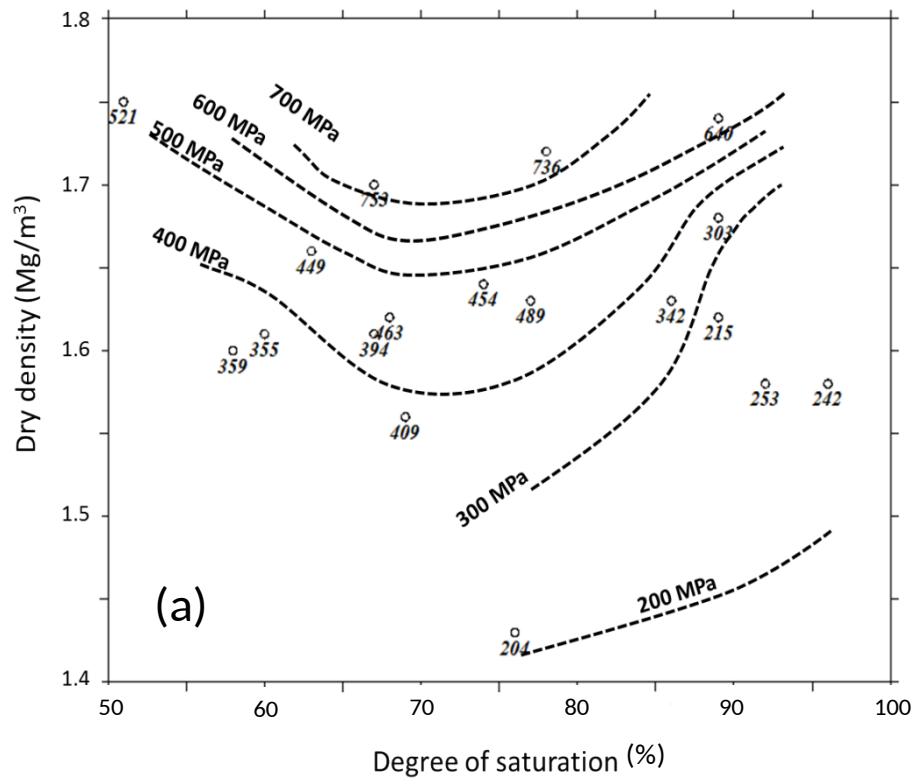
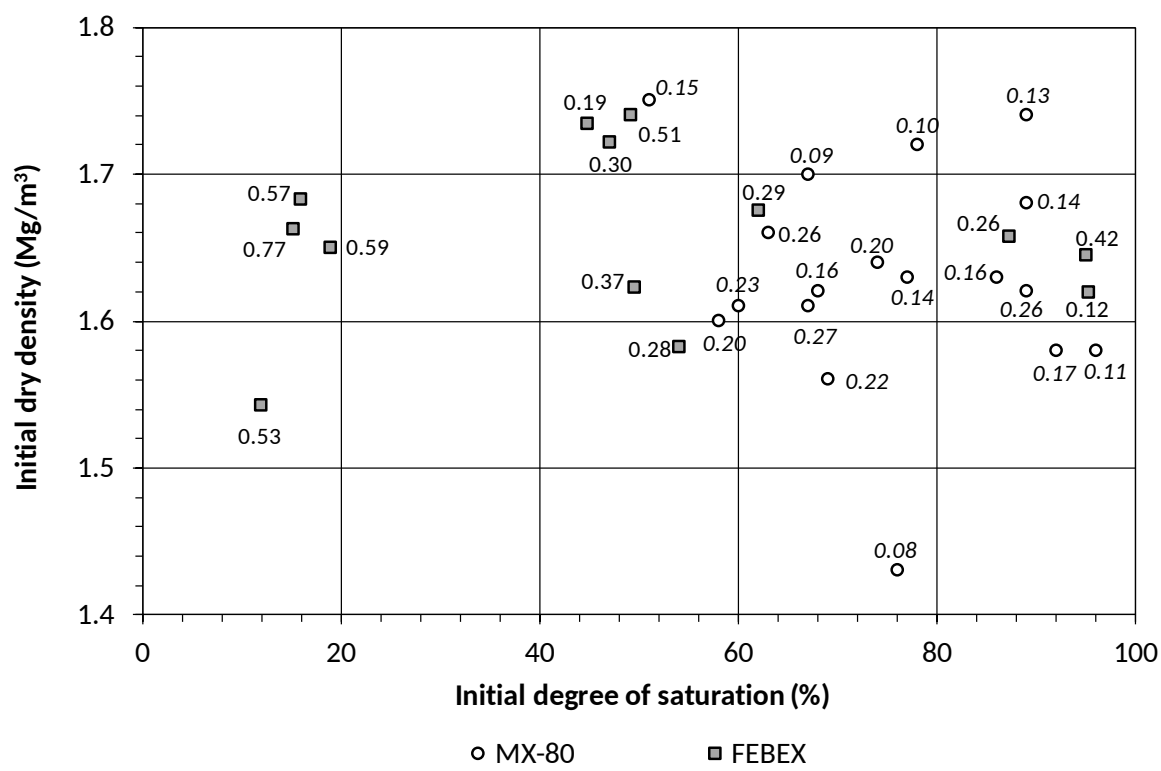


Figure 8. Contour plot of the small shear modulus (MPa) when the confinement pressure is 800 kPa as function of initial dry density and degree of saturation. MX-80 (a) and FEBEX (b).

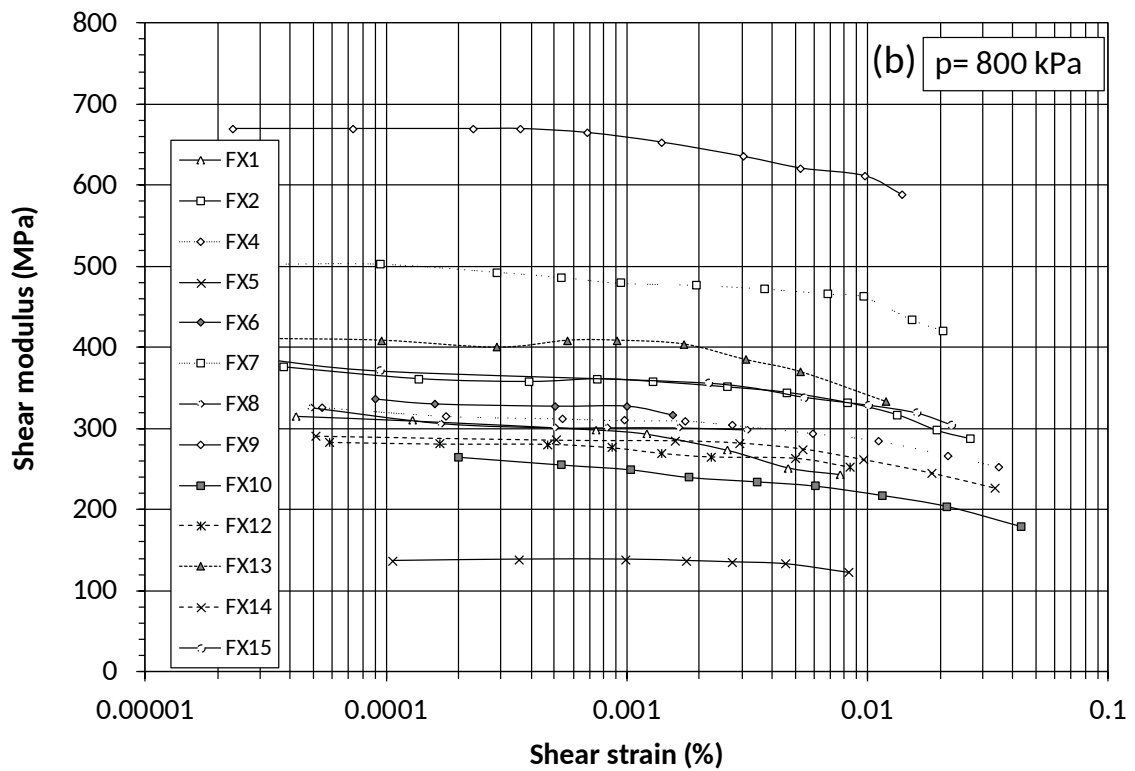
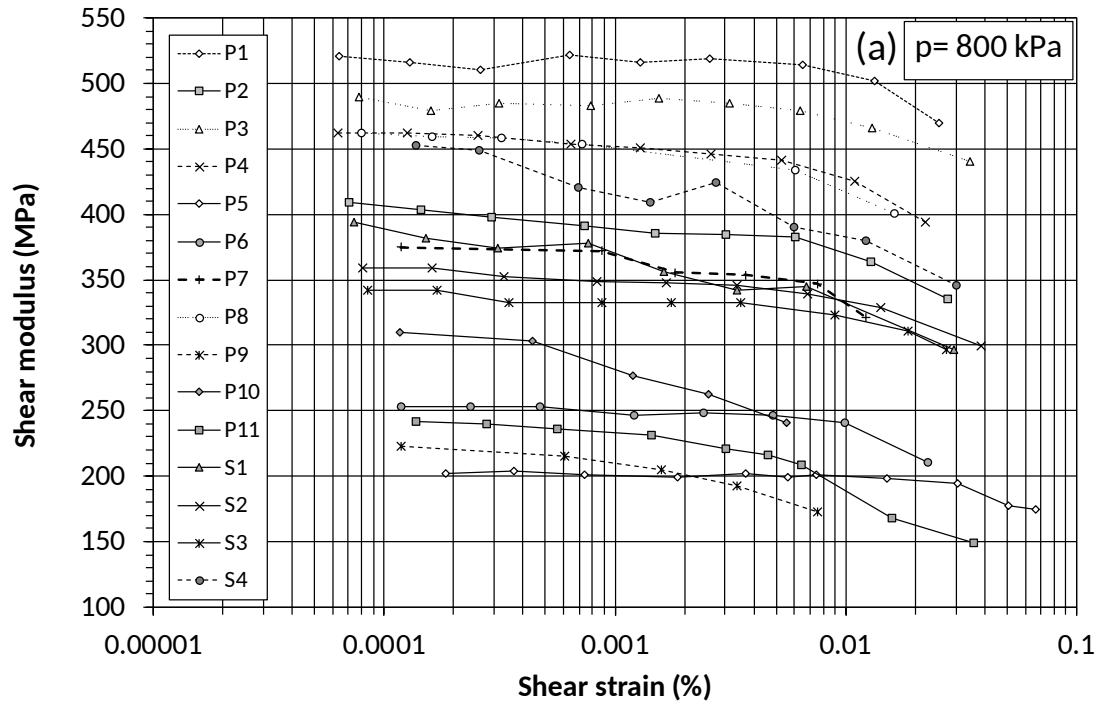
575



576

577 Figure 9. Value of n (equation (7)) in MX-80 and FEBEX bentonite.

578



579 Figure 10. Shear modulus as function of the shear strains when the confinement pressure is 800 kPa.  
 580 MX-80 (a) and FEBEX (b).

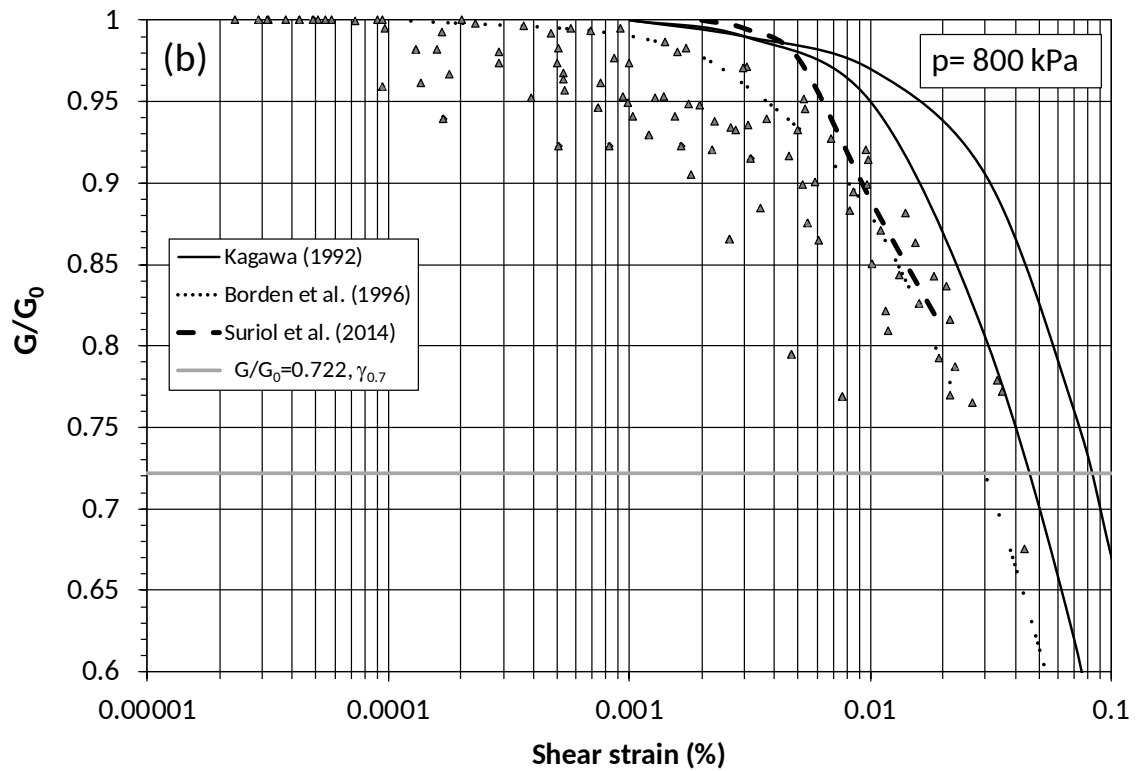
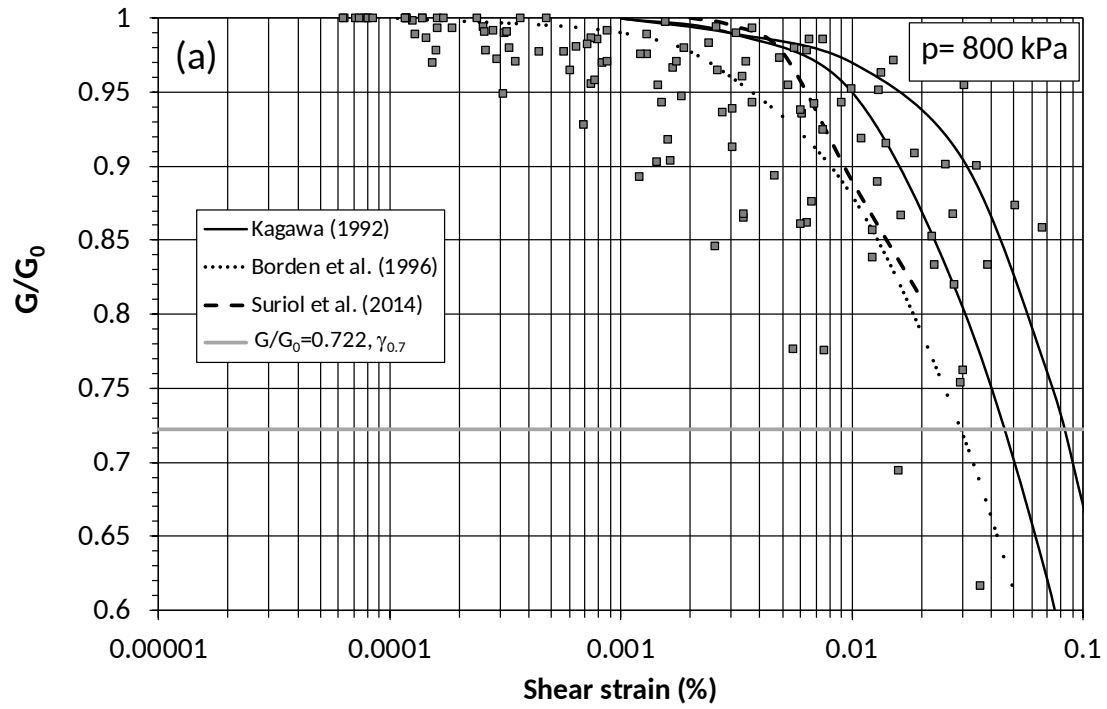
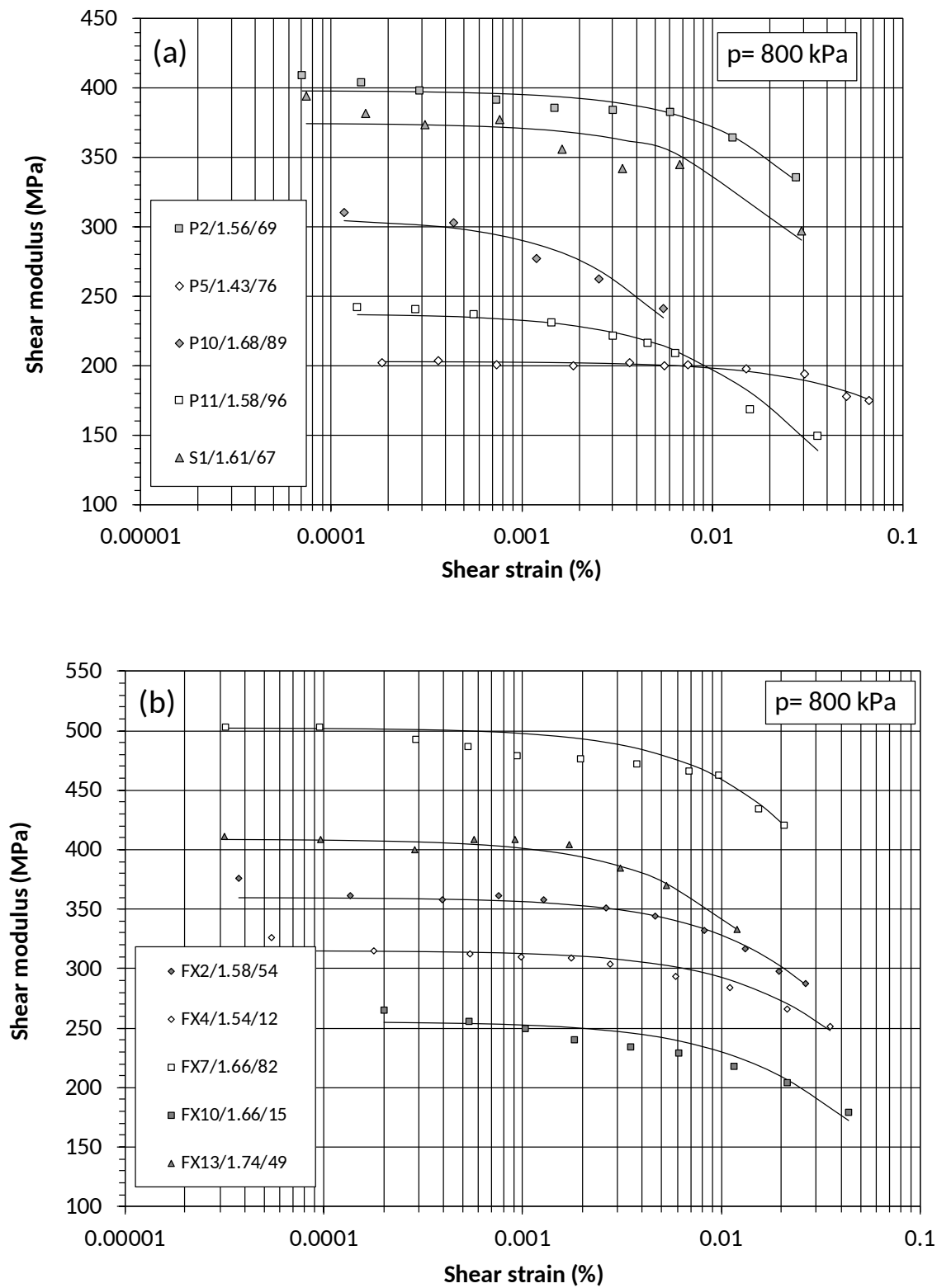


Figure 11.  $G/G_0$  as function of the shear strains when the confinement pressure is 800 kPa. MX-80 (a) and FEBEX (b). The results are compared with results from other authors. Kagawa (1992)<sup>40</sup>, Suriol (2014)<sup>17</sup> and Borden et al., 1996<sup>42</sup> mean the results obtained in their works.



587  
588

Figure 12. Shear modulus when the confinement pressure is 800 kPa. MX-80 (a) and FEBEX (b). The numbers with the sample references are the dry density ( $\text{Mg/m}^3$ ) and the degree of saturation.

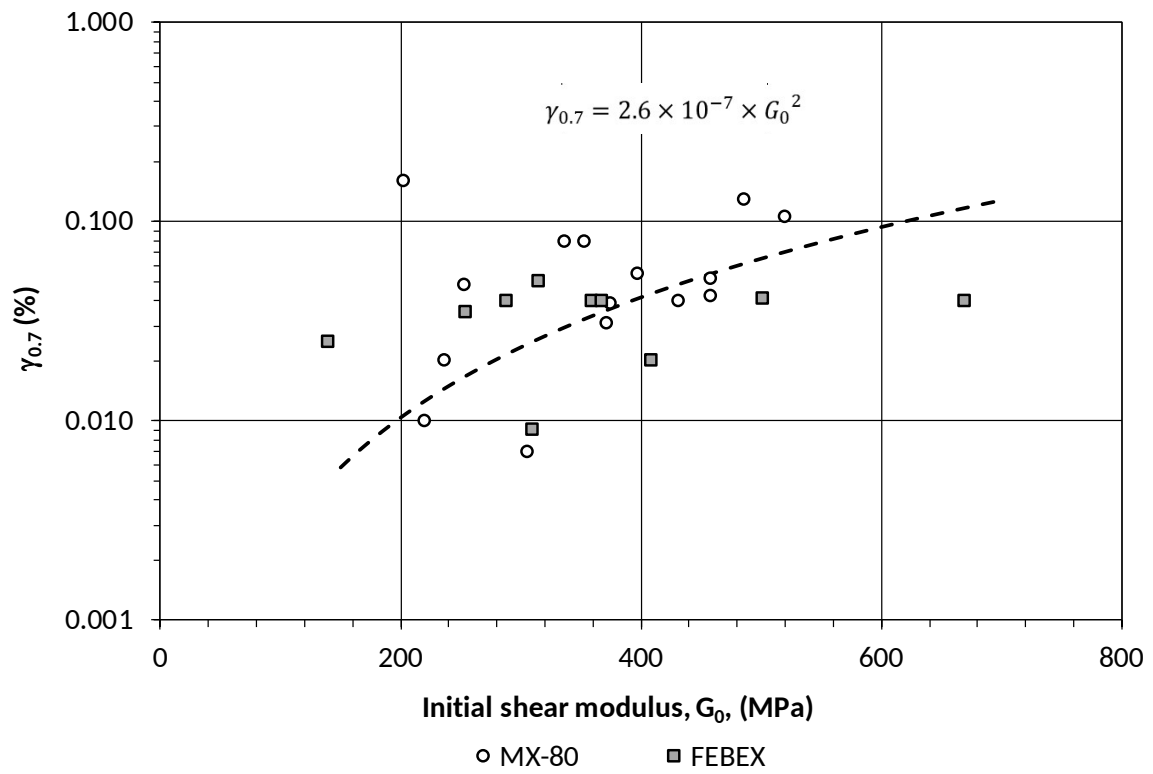


Figure 13. Value of  $\gamma_{0.7}$  in MX-80 and FEBEX bentonite.

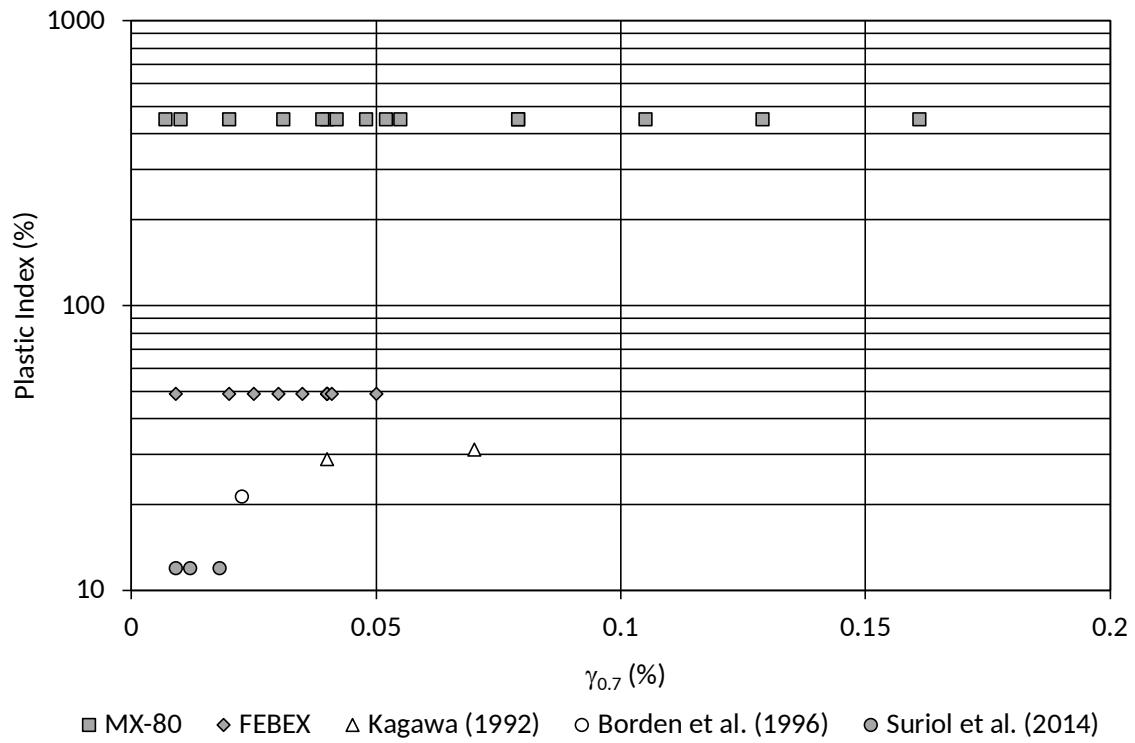
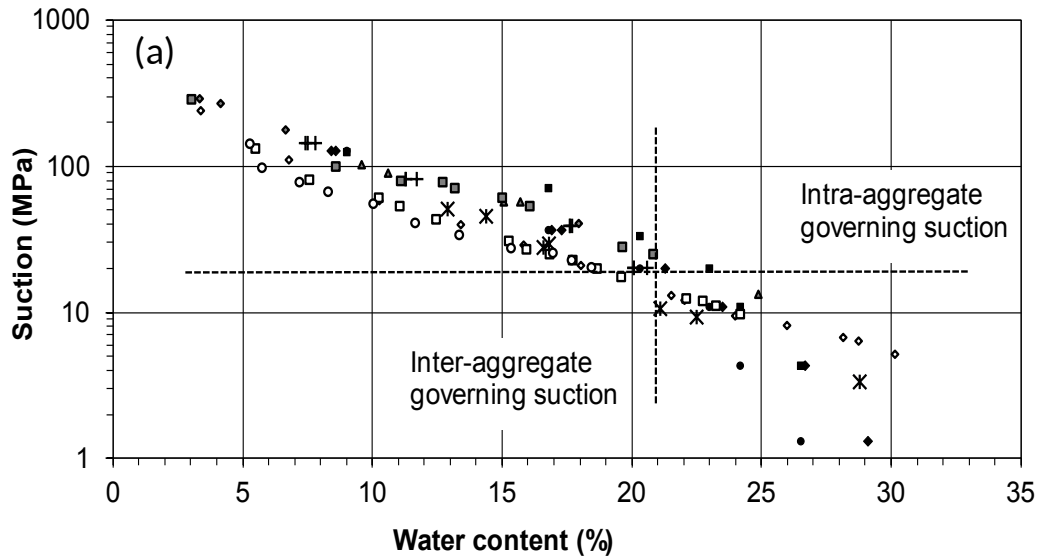


Figure 14. Plastic index vs  $\gamma_{0.7}$  (%). The values of  $\gamma_{0.7}$  in Kagawa (1992)<sup>40</sup> and Borden et al. (1996)<sup>42</sup> were calculated from the figures and the plastic index from the tables (it had scatter and only the average is showed). The values from Suriol et al. (2014)<sup>17</sup> corresponds to a relation  $G/G_0=0.8$ .



- ✕ Dueck (2004), 1.61 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- ◆ Villar (2007), 1.3 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- Villar (2007), 1.6 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- Villar (2005), 1.6 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- + Tang (2005), 1.65 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- ◆ Seiphoori (2014), 1.5 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- Seiphoori (2014), 1.65 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- Seiphoori (2014), 1.8 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- ▲ Pintado (2013), 1.5 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- Pintado (2013), 1.6 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>
- ◆ Pintado (2013), 1.7 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>

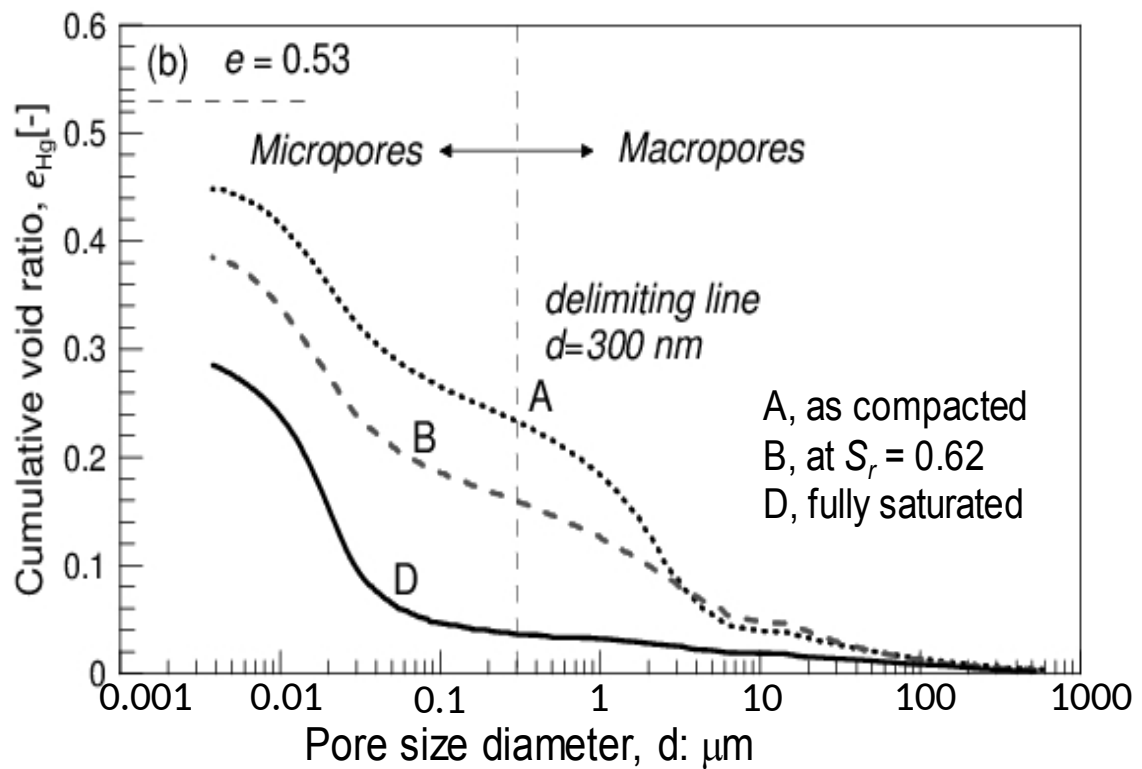
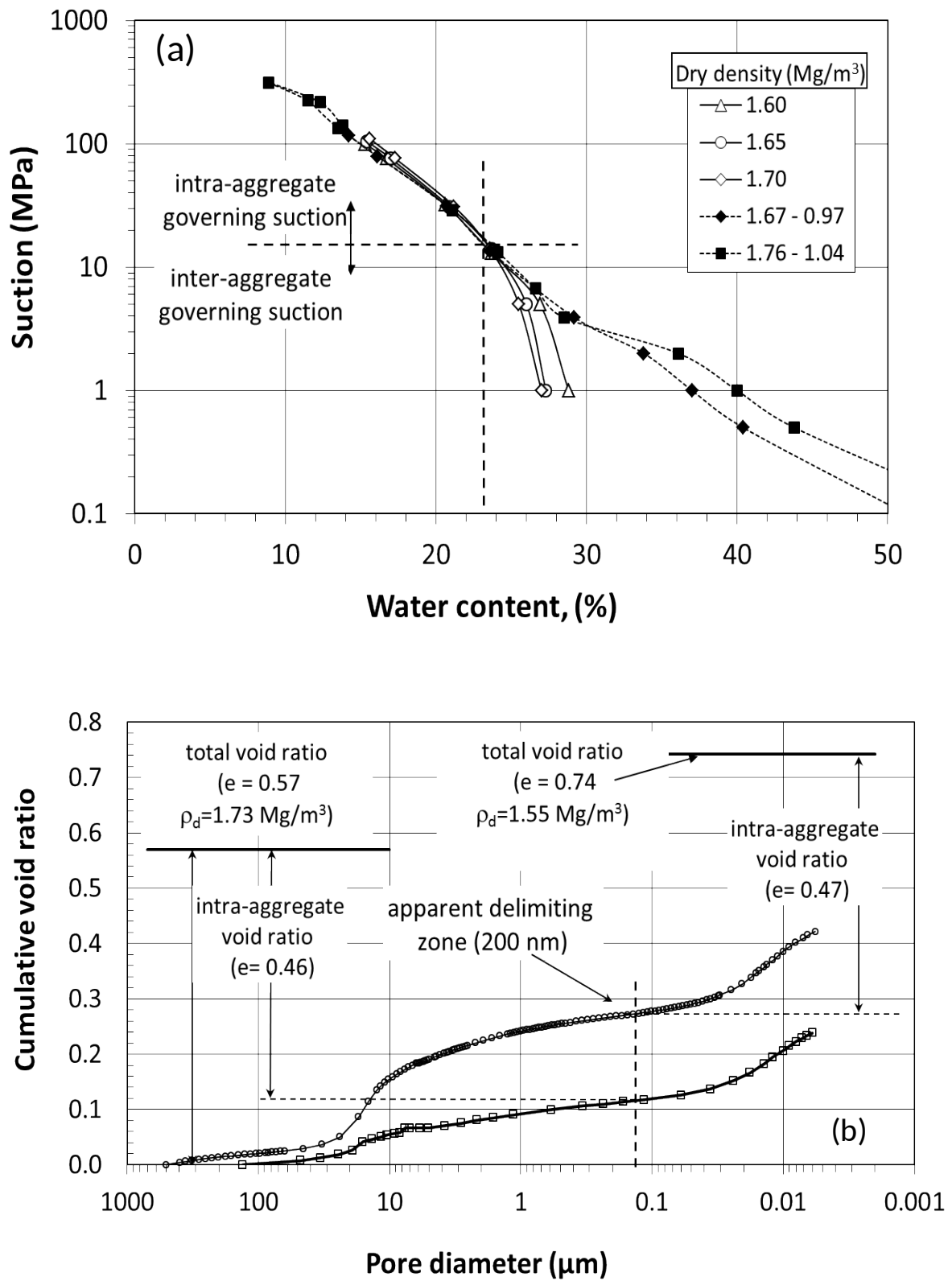


Figure 15. Retention curves for compacted MX-80 bentonite obtained under constant-volume conditions (results from Pintado et al.<sup>49</sup>) (a). Relationship between pore diameter and intruded pore volume (b) compacted at a dry density of 1.80 Mg/m<sup>3</sup> ( $e=0.53$ ) with different degrees of saturation (as compacted,  $S_r=62\%$  and full saturated<sup>33</sup>).





604 Figure 16. Retention curves for compacted FEBEX bentonite obtained under free swelling and constant-  
 605 volume conditions (a). Relationship between pore diameter and intruded pore volume for two samples  
 606 compacted at different dry densities in FEBEX bentonite (b)<sup>47</sup>.

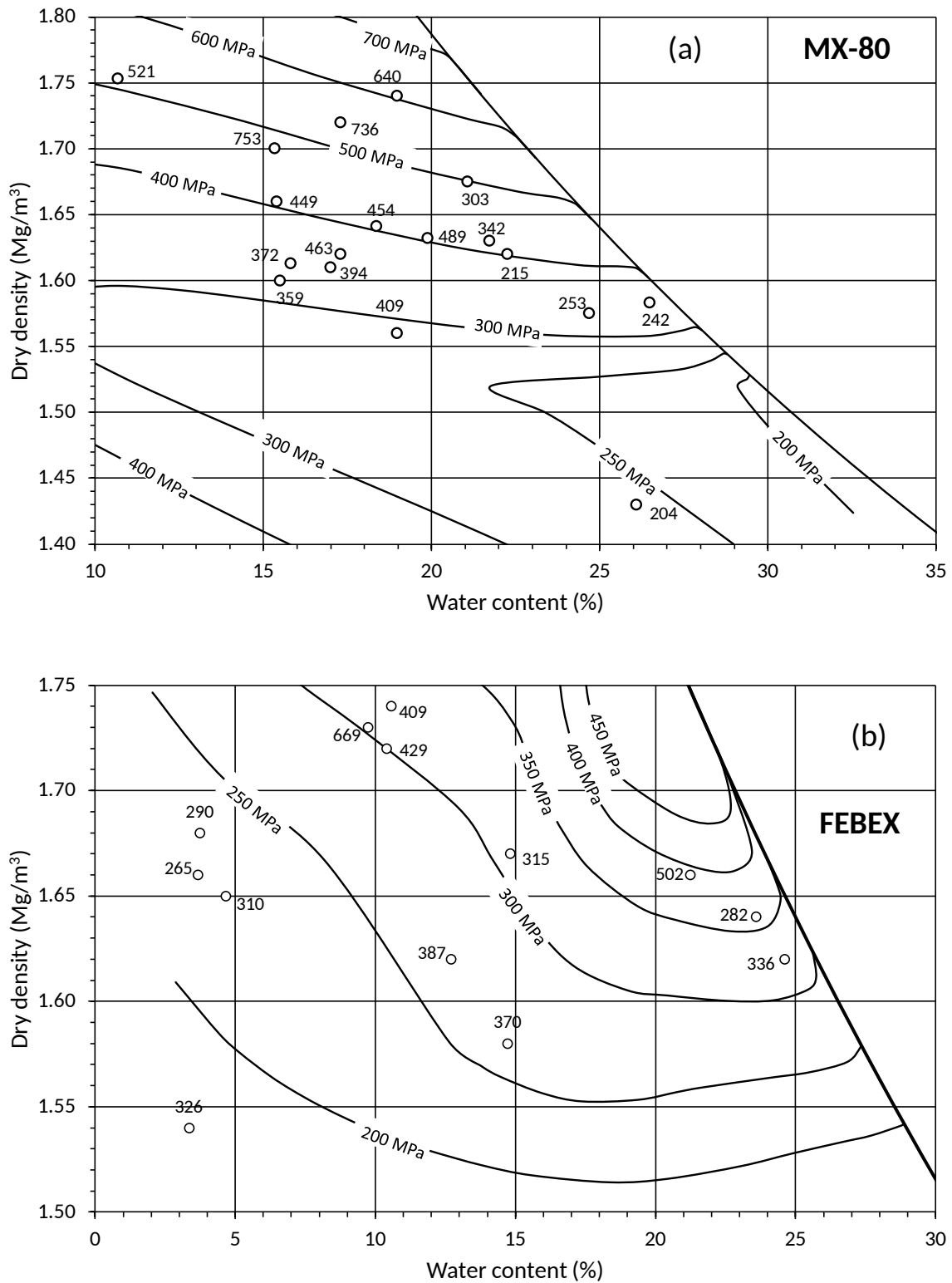


Figure 17. Shear modulus measured (points) and calculated (isolines) for a confinement pressure of 800 kPa in MX-80 (a) and FEBEX bentonite (b). The difference has been quantified following the equation  $\text{Error} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (G_{0 \text{ calculated},i} - G_{0 \text{ measured},i})^2}{n}}$ , where  $n$  is the number of tests. The value calculated for MX-80 was 159 and for FEBEX bentonite 121.

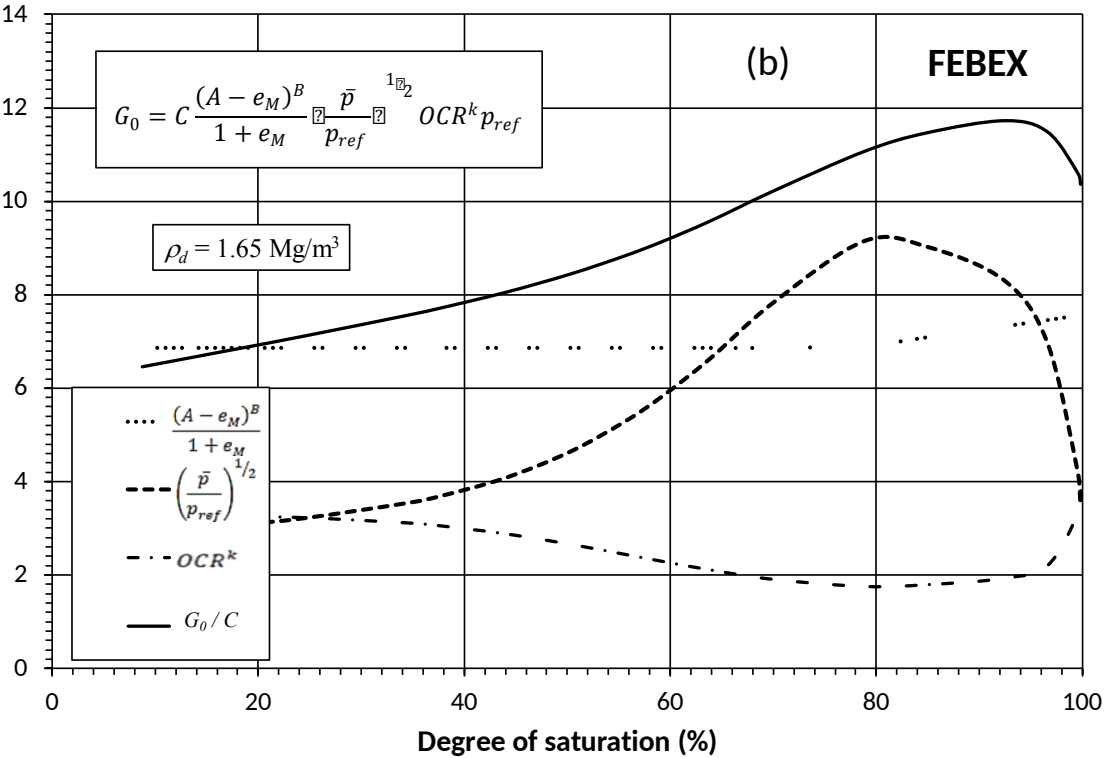
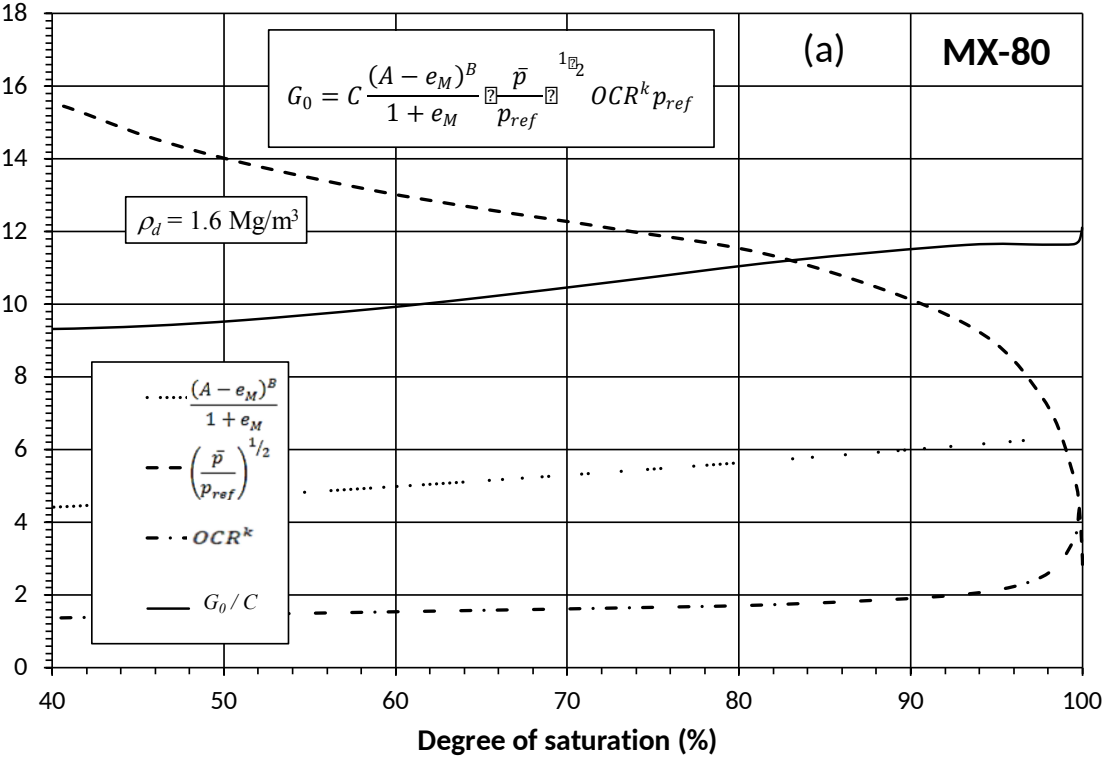


Figure 18. Variation with saturation degree of the effects on shear modulus of void ratio, constitutive  
confining stress and overconsolidation ratio for a dry density of 1.65 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>. Results in MX-80 (a) and  
FEBEX (b).

618

619  
620

Table 1. Shear modulus and parameters of the models as function of the confinement pressure  $p$  (MPa) in MX-80 bentonite.

Sample	Initial water content (%)	Initial dry density (Mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Initial degree of Saturation (%)	Small-strain shear modulus ( $G_0$ ) in MPa						
				p=0.1	p=0.2	p=0.4	p=0.8	p=2	p=5	p=10
P1	10.7	1.75	51	386	430	481	521	-	-	-
P2	19.0	1.56	69	262	313	373	409	-	-	-
P3	19.9	1.63	77	375	424	456	489	-	-	-
P4	17.3	1.62	68	332	358	410	463	-	-	-
P5	26.1	1.43	76	169	188	193	204	-	-	-
P6	24.7	1.58	92	180	208	236	253	-	-	-
P7	15.8	1.61	60	235	275	341	355	-	-	-
P8	18.4	1.64	74	294	365	409	454	-	-	-
P9	22.3	1.62	89	124	163	190	215	-	-	-
P10	21.1	1.68	89	228	247	284	303	-	-	-
P11	26.5	1.58	96	193	221	237	242	-	-	-
S1	17.0	1.61	67	224	284	339	394	-	-	-
S2	15.5	1.60	58	239	279	338	359	-	-	-
S3	21.7	1.63	86	247	281	313	342	-	-	-
S4	15.4	1.66	63	260	370	370	449	-	-	-
HP1	15.3	1.70	67	-	-	723	753	805	888	977
HP2	17.3	1.72	78	-	-	651	736	795	866	892
HP3	19.0	1.74	89	-	-	545	640	723	795	850

621  
622  
623

624 Table 2. Shear modulus and parameters of the models as function of the confinement pressure  $p$  (MPa)  
625 in FEBEX bentonite.

Sample	Initial water content (%)	Initial dry density (Mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Initial degree of saturation (%)	Small-strain shear modulus ( $G_0$ ) in MPa			
				p=0.1	p=0.2	p=0.4	p=0.8
FX1	14.8	1.67	62		189	268	315
FX2	14.7	1.58	54	207	245	300	370
FX3	13.6	1.67	57	223	270	-	-
FX4	3.4	1.54	12	106	174	208	326
FX5	2.8	1.56	10	106	138	-	-
FX6	24.6	1.62	95	270	-	331	336
FX7	21.3	1.66	87	296	370	429	502
FX8	4.7	1.65	19	90	137	190	310
FX9	9.7	1.73	45	462	529	611	669
FX10	3.7	1.66	15	55	85	178	265
FX11	10.4	1.72	47	219	293	381	429
FX12	23.6	1.64	95	108	121	148.6	282
FX13	10.6	1.74	49	137	181	285	409
FX14	3.7	1.68	16	89	141	199.8	290
FX15	12.7	1.62	50	180	240	299	387

626

627

628 Table 3. Parameters of the model for  $G_0$  calculation.

Soil	$P_{ref}$ (MPa)	$A$ <i>Suriol et al.</i> <sup>17</sup>	$B$ <i>Suriol et al.</i> <sup>17</sup>	$C$	$k$	$k$ <i>Hardin and</i> <i>Black</i> <sup>20</sup>
MX-80	0.1	2.97	2	32.3	0.565	0.5
FEBEX	0.1	2.97	2	32.3	0.452	0.36

629